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I. THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

AN ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF NEW JERSEY IN 1838.*

FELLOW CITIZENS:—We were appointed by the Convention of your own delegates to address you on the subject of Common Schools. We approach you with solicitude, as deeply sensible of the great importance of the interest intrusted to us; yet, as free-men speaking to freemen, with prevailing confidence.

The points which we propose for your attention, and, if we might, would press into every heart, are few, simple and practical; the necessary consequences, it seems to us, from principles which all admit. We say that *knowledge is the universal right of man*: and we need bring no clearer demonstration than that intellectual nature, capable of it, thirsting for it, expanding and aspiring with it, which is God's own argument in every living soul. We say that the assertion for himself of this inherent right, to the full measure of his abilities and opportunities, is *the universal duty of man*: and that whoever fails of it, thwarts the design of his Creator; and, in proportion as he neglects the gift of God, dwarfs and enslaves and brutifies the high capacity for truth and liberty which he inherits. And all experience, and every page of history confirm the assertion, in the close kindred, which has everywhere been proved, of ignorance and vice with wretchedness and slavery. And we say farther, that the security of this inherent right to every individual, and its extension, in the fullest measure, to the greatest number, is *the universal interest of man*; so that they who deny or abridge it to their fellows, or who encourage, or, from want of proper influence, permit them to neglect it, are undermining the foundations of government, weakening the hold of society, and preparing the way for that unsettling and dissolving of all human institutions, which must result in anarchy and ruin, and in which they who have the greatest stake must be the greatest sufferers. A lesson, clearly taught by

* The Convention assembled in Trenton on the 27th and 28th of January, 1838, Chief Justice Hornblower presiding. The address was prepared by the Rt. Rev. George W. Doane, in behalf of a Committee consisting of Bishop Doane, Chairman, L. Q. C. Elmer, M. J. Rheek, T. Prelsinghuyzen, J. S. Green, D. B. Ryall, A. B. Dod, A. Atwood, and S. B. Gummere.

that divine philosophy, in which the Maker of mankind becomes their Teacher; reveals the world as but one neighborhood, and men as brethren of one family; and writes upon all social institutions these golden truths, the fundamentals and essentials of the true political economy, which neither individuals nor nations have ever disregarded with impunity,—“all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them”—“none of us liveth to himself”—“whether one member suffer, all the members suffer with it; or one member be honored, all the members rejoice with it”—“bear ye one another’s burdens, and so fulfill the law of Christ.”

If the truth of these positions be established, their application is self-evident. And there never was a nation, since the world was made, in which their obligation was so clear, or its application so important. In the theory of our constitution, the people are the governors. In practice, they ought to be. And is ignorance the qualification for good government? Would you select a man to make your laws who can not read? Or one who can not write to execute them? Yet the authority which they exercise, and the abuses of which they are capable, are nothing, in comparison with theirs, from whom all power proceeds, and without whose permission no wrong can be done. Fellow citizens, we are republicans. Our country is our *common wealth*. We have all an equal share in her. Her laws are alike for the protection of all. Her institutions are alike for the advantage of all. Her blessings are our common privilege. Her glory is our common pride. But common privileges impose a common responsibility. And equal rights can never be disjoined from equal duties. The constitution which, under God, secures our liberties, is in the keeping of us all. It is a sacred trust which no man can delegate. He holds it for himself, not only, but for his children, for posterity, and for the world. And he who can not read it, who does not understand its provisions, who could not on a just occasion, assert its principles, no more sustains the character of an American citizen, than the man who would not seal it with his blood.

It is in vain to say that education is a private matter, and that it is the duty of every parent to provide for the instruction of his own children. In theory, it is so. But there are some who can not, and there are more who will not, make provision. And the question then is, shall the State suffer from individual inability, or from individual neglect? When the child who has not been trained up in the way in which he ought to go, commits a crime against the State,

the law, with iron hand, comes in between the parent and his offspring, and takes charge of the offender. And shall there be provision to punish only, and none to prevent? Shall the only offices in which the State is known be those of jailor and of executioner? Shall she content herself with the stern attribute of justice, and discard the gentler ministries of mercy? It was said of Draco's laws that they were writ with blood. Is it less true of any State which makes provision for the whipping-post, the penitentiary, the scaffold, and leaves the education of her children to individual effort or precarious charity? It was well said by the distinguished head of our Judiciary,* even more distinguished as the President of the late convention for Common Schools, "the State has an interest in every child within her limits." May not still more than this with equal truth be said,—the welfare, nay, the being of the State is bound up in the character of every child? Think of the blessings which Washington, and Franklin, and Fulton, and Marshall, have brought down upon our land! Think of the scorn and execration which the name of Arnold brings with it, the single name in our whole history at which the nation needs to blush!

If the positions be maintained, that *the education of the people is indispensable to the preservation of free institutions*, and that *it is therefore the duty of every free State to provide for the education of her children*, we are prepared, fellow citizens, for the inquiry, *how far has provision been made for the discharge of this duty in the State with which we are most intimately connected, the State of New Jersey?* That the duty of making some provision for this end has long been recognized, the twenty-one years which have elapsed since the passage of the first act "to create a fund for the support of free schools" sufficiently attest. That what has been done is insufficient you have yourselves borne witness in the general impulse which, in December and January last, originated so many of those primary assemblies—in our republic the true sources of power and influence—for the consideration of this subject; and in that large, intelligent, and most respectable convention, composed of delegates, chosen by yourselves, to express your own views on the provisions for the public instruction, by which it was resolved with singular unanimity, that "the general laws of this State on the subject of Common Schools are essentially defective and ought to be repealed." Into the question, "What shall be substituted for the present law?" the convention did not enter. It was for them to de-

* Chief Justice Hornblower, by his deportment as the presiding officer of the Convention, adds new dignity to his office, and to himself.

share the wishes of the people for a more effective system of instruction. The plan and its provisions they left with perfect confidence to the wisdom of the Legislature. The course which the convention pursued is even more becoming for us. The rather, as the matter is at this very moment in the course of legislative action. And after all, fellow citizens, the question, "What the law is?" is by no means so important as the question, "What is public sentiment?" If the people are but right the Legislature never will be greatly wrong. Or if they should, the remedy is easy, and the cure infallible.

Omitting all considerations, then, of what has been or of what may be legislative enactments on the subject, we address you as the Sovereign People, and we say that "*it is your duty and your highest interest to provide and to maintain, within the reach of every child, the means of such an education as will qualify him to discharge the duties of a citizen of the Republic*;" and will enable him, by subsequent exertion, in the free exercise of the unconquerable will, to attain the highest eminence in knowledge and in power which God may place within his reach. We utterly repudiate as unworthy, not of freemen only, but of men, the narrow notion that there is to be an education for the poor, as such. Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth, a thinner air, a paler sky? Does not the glorious sun pour down his golden flood as cheerily upon the poor man's hovel as upon the rich man's palace? Have not the cotter's children as keen a sense of all the freshness, verdure, fragrance, melody, and beauty of luxuriant nature as the pale sons of kings? Or is it on the mind that God has stamped the imprint of a baser birth so that the poor man's child knows with an inborn certainty that his lot is to crawl, not climb? It is not so. God has not done it. Man can not do it. Mind is immortal. Mind is imperial. It bears no mark of high or low, of rich or poor. It heeds no bound of time or place, of rank or circumstance. It asks but freedom. It requires but light. It is heaven-born, and it aspires to heaven. Weakness does not enfeeble it. Poverty can not repress it. Difficulties do but stimulate its vigor. And the poor tallow chandler's son that sits up all the night to read the book which an apprentice lends him lest the master's eye should miss it in the morning, shall stand and treat with kings, shall add new provinces to the domain of science, shall bind the lightning with a hempen cord and bring it harmless from the skies.* The Common School is *common*, not as inferior, not as the school for poor men's children, but as the

light and air are common. It ought to be the best school because it is the first school; and in all good works the beginning is one-half. Who does not know the value to a community of a plentiful supply of the pure element of water? And infinitely more than this is the instruction of the common School; for it is the fountain at which the mind drinks, and is refreshed and strengthened for its career of usefulness and glory.

Fellow citizens, it is the wise ordinance of God that man shall work for what he values. In all the dealings of your ordinary life, you act upon the principle. You plow your fields. You urge your spindles. You ply your fisheries. You tend your shops. With sweat of brow, or sweat of brain, each precious thing that man possesses must be gained and kept. At no less price can liberty and its attendant blessings be enjoyed. "That which makes a good constitution," said wise and prudent William Penn,* "must also keep it, men of wisdom and virtue: qualities which, because they descend not with inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." Ask not, then, when we enjoin on you the duty of providing for the public instruction, where the cost shall come from! Were your house beset with robbers would you stop to ask the cost of its defense? If an invading army were to land to-morrow on our shores must we stop to count the cost before we march to meet and to repel them? The Common Schools are in the place to us of arms, and troops, and fleets. They are our nurseries of men. They are indeed "the cheap defense of nations."

What constitutes a State?
 Not high-raised battlements or labored mound,
 Thick wall, or moated gate;
 Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned,
 Not bays and broad-armed ports,
 Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
 Not starred and spangled courts,
 Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride,
 No—~~Men~~, high-minded ~~Men~~.

* * * * *
 Men who their duties know,
 But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain;
 Prevent the long-aimed blow,
 And crush the tyrant, while they rend the chain:
 These constitute a State.†

Fellow citizens, it is for you to say what shall be the present character, what shall be the future destiny of New Jersey. We

* Preface to the Frame of Government, 1682. † Sir William Jones, in imitation of Alcæus.

have indeed a goodly heritage. But it has been long and shamefully neglected. We have undervalued our privileges. We have overlooked our duties. We have been content to be a pendent merely, when we ought to be an independent State. There is now, thank God, the sound as of a trumpet in the land that stirs the old heroic blood. We feel the remnant sparks of the forgotten fire which warmed our fathers' hearts. The spirit of the elder day is breathing on us with its quickening and invigorating power. Let us accept the omen. Let us obey the noble impulse. Let us arise to duty and to glory. Men of New Jersey, it is you that are to rise. You are the State. You create and you control the Legislature. You enact and you sustain the laws. Yours are the means. Yours is the influence. Yours is the work. You make, *you are the State*. Go on as you have now begun. The system of Common Schools which shall be adopted by the present legislature, take into your own hands. If it is not what it should be, see that the next legislature make it such. Act together. Act with system. Act like men. The organization for the purpose is complete. The General Committee, the Committees of correspondence for the counties, the Committees of the townships—there is not an inch of ground that is not reached, there is not a citizen of New Jersey whose heart may not be roused by this electric chain. Lay to your hands, then, and employ it well. The work is great, and great must be the effort, and great the confidence. You must trust yourselves. You must trust your fellow citizens. You must trust the legislature. A system of public instruction is a great and arduous enterprise. You must repose such confidence in those who are to frame it as shall enable them to do it well. When it is framed you will do wisely to commit its oversight, subject to legislative supervision, to a judicious Board,* selected carefully from your most tried and faithful men, with wisdom to direct and with devotion to exert its powers. Above all, give the direction of the engine, with a large and liberal discretion, to a skillful engineer. And when it is made, and manned, and set in operation, you must still support it, you must watch over it, you must be yourselves a part of it. The School Fund is not equal to the work. And if it were, it would not be so well for you. Tax yourselves for the support of

* It is said that there are prejudices against a Board of Education, and a Superintendent. We can hardly think that they are general. If so, our appeal is to the good, sterling, common sense of the people of New Jersey. Is there a turnpike road, or a steamboat, or a bank, or a cotton factory, whose affairs are not intrusted to a Board of Managers? Is there a mill in all the State without a miller, or a locomotive in the land without an engineer? Is the education of the people less important than all these? Or is the system of public education to be the only case of a machine that goes alone?

Common Schools and you will never be in danger of taxation from a foreign power—you will need less taxation for the support of pauperism, and the punishment of crime. Look to your school-houses. See that they are convenient of access, that they are comfortable, that they are neat and tasteful. Look to the teachers. See that they are taught themselves, and apt to teach; men that fear God, and love their country. See that they are well accommodated, well treated, well remunerated. Respect them and they will respect themselves, and your children will respect them. Look to the scholars. Have them much in your eye, and always in your heart. Remember you are to grow old among them. Remember you are to die, and leave your country in their hands.

"Good Common Schools," says Governor Everett, of Massachusetts, "are the basis of every wise system of popular education." This is precisely what they are, the basis of a system; but the basis only. Let us now lay their broad foundations deep and strong—foundations that will stand themselves and bear the noble structure which our children and our children's children, as we trust, will rear upon them. We are the citizens of a small State. We can not, by our votes, control the electoral college. We can not, by our political influence, aspire to be the empire State of the confederacy. But there is a nobler empire, whose dominion does not come by numbers or by physical power. We may aspire, if we are just to ourselves and to our opportunities, to wield the suffrages of mind. The men of Athens were but few, their territory small, their soil indifferent. Yet did Athenian arms prevail against the myriads of the East; and to Athenian letters and Athenian arts admiring nations still award the palm. In the same noble lists let us engage; and make the mastery of intellect the prize of our ambition. Let us devote ourselves and consecrate the State to the great work of education. Let us lay hold in earnest of the remarkable advantages which we possess in this respect, in our accessible position, our temperate climate, our freedom from absorbing interests, the moderate habits, and the simple manners of our people. Let us sustain our present seats of learning; and let kindred institutions in every varied form be multiplied about us. Let us collect the children of the land: and on their minds make the mark which shall go down to latest generations. Let other States excel in commerce, or in agriculture, or in manufacturies. But let the staple of our State be mind; the products of our soil, with God to bless the culture, knowledge, and patriotism, and virtue; our highest object and our noblest aim to be the State of Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges, the educating State, the nursery of freemen.

That which makes a good Constitution must keep it, viz: then of wisdom and virtue: qualities that, because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth, for which spare no cost, for by such parsimony, all that is saved is lost.

WILLIAM PENN. *Instructions to Council.*

Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

GEORGE WASHINGTON. *Farewell Address.*

The wisdom and generosity of the Legislature in making liberal appropriations in money for the benefit of schools, academies and colleges, is an equal honor to them and their constituents, a proof of their veneration for letters and science, and a portent of great and lasting good to North and South America, and to the world. Great is truth—great is liberty—great is humanity—and they must and will prevail.

JOHN ADAMS. *Inaugural.*

I look to the diffusion of light and education as the resources most to be relied on for ameliorating the condition, promoting the virtue, and advancing the happiness of man. And I do hope, in the present spirit of extending to the great mass of mankind the blessings of instruction, I see a prospect of great advancement in the happiness of the human race, and this may proceed to an indefinite, although not an infinite degree. A system of general instruction, which shall reach every description of our citizens, from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so it shall be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest. Give it to us, in any shape, and receive for the inestimable boon the thanks of the young, and the blessings of the old, who are past all other services but prayers for the prosperity of their country, and blessings to those who promote it.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Learned institutions ought to be the favorite objects with every free people; they throw that light over the public mind which is the best security against crafty and dangerous encroachments on the public liberty. They multiply the educated individuals, from among whom the people may elect a due portion of their public agents of every description, more especially of those who are to frame the laws: by the perspicuity, the consistency, and the stability, as well as by the justice and equal spirit of which, the great social purposes are to be answered.

JAMES MADISON.

Moral, political, and intellectual improvement, are duties assigned by the author of our existence to social, no less than to individual man. For the fulfillment of these duties, governments are invested with power, and to the attainment of these ends, the exercise of this power is a duty sacred and indispensable.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

For the purpose of promoting the happiness of the State, it is absolutely necessary that our Government, which unites into one all the minds of the State, should possess in an eminent degree not only the understanding, the passions, and the will, but above all, the moral faculty and the conscience of an individual. Nothing can be politically right that is morally wrong; and no necessity can ever sanctify a law that is contrary to equity. Virtue is the soul of a Republic. To promote this, laws for the suppression of vice and immorality will be as ineffectual as the increase and enlargement of goals. There is but one method of preventing crime and of rendering a republican form of government durable; and that is, by disseminating the seeds of virtue and knowledge through every part of the State, by means of proper modes and places of education; and this can be done effectually only by the interference and aid of the legislature. I am so deeply impressed with this opinion, that were this the last evening of my life, I would not only say to the asylum of my ancestors and my beloved native country, with the patriot of Venice, "*Esto perpetua*," but I would add, as the best proof of my affection for her, my parting advice to the guardians of her liberties, establish and support PUBLIC SCHOOLS in every part of the State. **BENJAMIN RUSH.**

There is one object which I earnestly recommend to your notice and patronage; I mean our institutions for the education of youth. The importance of common schools is best estimated by the good effects of them where they most abound, and are best regulated. Our ancestors have transmitted to us many excellent institutions, matured by the wisdom and experience of ages. Let them descend to posterity, accompanied with others, which by promoting useful knowledge, and multiplying the blessings of social order, diffusing the influence of moral obligations, may be reputable to us, and beneficial to them. **JOHN JAY.**

The first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions, and in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption and violence. I consider the system of our Common Schools as the palladium of our freedom, for no reasonable apprehension can be entertained of its subversion, as long as the great body of the people are enlightened by education. To increase the funds, to extend the benefits, and to remedy the defects of this excellent system, is worthy of your most deliberate attention. I can not recommend, in terms too strong and impressive, as munificent appropriations as the faculties of the State will authorize for all establishments connected with the interests of education, the exaltation of literature and science, and the improvement of the human mind.

• **DE WITT CLINTON. *Message as Governor.***

The parent who sends his son into the world uneducated, defrauds the community of a lawful citizen, and bequeathes to it a nuisance.

CHANCELLOR KENT.

I know not to what else we can better liken the strong appetite of the mind for improvement, than to a hunger and thirst after knowledge and truth; nor how we can better describe the province of education, than to say, it does that for the intellect, which is done for the body, when it receives the care and nourishment which are necessary for its growth, health and strength. From this comparison, I think I derive new views of the importance of education. It is now a solemn duty, a tender, sacred trust. What! sir, feed a child's body, and let his soul hunger! pamper his limbs, and starve his faculties! Plant the earth, cover a thousand hills with your droves of cattle, pursue the fish to their hiding places in the sea, and spread out your wheat fields across the plain, in order to supply the wants of that body, which will soon be as cold and as senseless as their poorest clod, and let the pure spiritual essence within you, with all its glorious capacities for improvement, languish and pine! What! build factories, turn in rivers upon the water-wheels, unchain the imprisoned spirits of steam, to weave a garment for the body, and let the soul remain unadorned and naked! What! send out your vessels to the farthest ocean, and make battle with the monsters of the deep, in order to obtain the means of lighting up your dwellings and workshops, and prolonging the hours of labor for the meat that perisheth, and permit that vital spark, which God has kindled, which He has intrusted to our care, to be fanned into a bright and heavenly flame; permit it, I say, to languish and go out!

EDWARD EVERETT.

If I were asked by an intelligent stranger to point out to him our most valued possessions, I would show to him—not our railroads, our warehouses filled with the wealth of all the earth, our ships, our busy wharves and marts, where the car of commerce is ever "thundering loud with her ten thousand wheels;" but I would carry him to one of our public schools, would show him its happy and intelligent children, hushed into reverent silence at their teacher's word, or humming over their tasks with a sound like that of bees in June. I would tell him that here was the foundation on which our material prosperity was reared, that here were the elements from which we constructed the State. Here are the fountains from which flow those streams which make glad our land. The schools of Boston are dear to my heart. Though I can have no personal and immediate interest in them; though no child on earth calls me father; yet most gladly do I contribute to their support, according to my substance; and when I see a father's eye filled with pleasant tears as he hears the music of his child's voice linked to some strain of poetry or burst of eloquence, I can sympathize in the feeling in which I can not share. May the blessing of Heaven rest upon our schools. They are an object worthy of all efforts and sacrifices. We should leave nothing undone which may tend to make them more excellent and more useful. For this we should gather into our own stores all the harvests of experience which have been reaped from other soils.

GEORGE S. HILLARD.

If in 1647, when a few scattered and feeble settlements, almost buried in the depths of the forest, were all that constituted the Colony of Massachusetts; when the entire population consisted of twenty-one thousand souls; when the external means of the people were small, their dwellings humble, and their raiment and subsistence scanty and homely; when the whole valuation of all the colonial estates, both public and private, would hardly equal the inventory of many a private individual at the present day; when the fierce eye of the savage was nightly seen glaring from the edge of the surrounding wilderness, and no defense or succor was at hand; it was then, amid all these privations and dangers, that the Pilgrim Fathers conceived the magnificent idea of a Free* and Universal Education for the People; and, amid all their poverty, they stinted themselves to a still scantier pittance; amid all their toils they imposed upon themselves still more burdensome labors; amid all their perils they braved still greater dangers, that they might find the time and the means to reduce their grand conception to practice. Two divine ideas filled their great hearts—their duty to God and to posterity. For the one they built the church; for the other they opened the school. Religion and Knowledge!—two attributes of the same glorious and eternal truth—and that truth the only one on which immortal or mortal happiness can be securely founded.

As an innovation upon all preexisting policy and usages, the establishment of Free Schools was the boldest ever promulgated since the commencement of the Christian era. As a theory, it could have been refuted and silenced by a more formidable array of argument and experience than was ever marshaled against any other opinion of human origin. But time has ratified its soundness. Two centuries now proclaim it to be as wise as it was courageous, as beneficent as it was disinterested. It was one of those grand mental and moral experiments whose effects can not be determined in a single generation. But now, according to the manner in which human life is computed, we are the sixth generation from its founders, and have we not reason to be grateful both to God and man for its unnumbered blessings? The sincerity of our gratitude must be tested by our efforts to perpetuate and improve what they established. The gratitude of the lips only is an unholy offering.

HORACE MANN. *Tenth Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education.*

* Was the Public School of Massachusetts at first free? Was Massachusetts the first to establish such a system as is ordained in the law of 1647?—*Ed. of Amer. Jour. of Education.*

The three following propositions describe the broad and ever-during foundation on which the Common School system of Massachusetts reposes:

The successive generations of men, taken collectively, constitute one great Commonwealth.

The property of this Commonwealth is pledged for the education of all its youth up to such a point as will save them from poverty and vice, and prepare them for the adequate performance of their social and civil duties.

The successive holders of this property are trustees, bound to the faithful execution of their trust by the most sacred obligations; because embezzlement and pillage from children and descendants are as criminal as the same offenses when perpetrated against contemporaries.

Recognizing these eternal principles of natural ethics, the Constitution of Massachusetts—the fundamental law of the State—after declaring, (among other things,) in the preamble to the first section of the fifth chapter, that “the encouragement of arts and sciences and all good literature tends to the honor of God, the advantage of the Christian religion, and the great benefit of this and the other United States of America,” proceeds, in the second section of the same chapter, to set forth the duties of all future Legislators and Magistrates, in the following noble and impressive language:—

“Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties; and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of this Commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them; especially the University of Cambridge, public schools, and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, rewards and immunities, for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections and generous sentiments among the people.”

HORACE MANN. *Tenth Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education.*

II. THE UNITED STATES NAVAL ACADEMY.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF VISITORS TO THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY,
FOR 1864.

SIR:—The Visitors, appointed "to witness the examination of the several classes and to examine into the state of the police, discipline, and general management of the Naval Academy," for 1864, report as follows:—

I. THEIR OWN PROCEEDINGS.

The regular session of the Board, although several members were in attendance earlier, commenced on Monday, the 20th of May, and continued from day to day until Friday, June 10th. Their investigations as a Board, embraced—

First.—A thorough inspection of the buildings, ships, and material equipment provided by the Department for the residence, subsistence, health, and instruction of the several classes.

Second.—An attendance of the whole or a portion of the Visitors, for a brief period at least, on the examination conducted by the Academic Board, of one or more sections of each class in each study professedly attended to during the year.

Third.—An exhibition of the professional knowledge and skill attained, including the parade, evolutions, tactics, and drill as a military corps—the uses of the rapier, cutlass, musket, and cannon, great and small—the handling of ropes, sails, spars, boats, and everything included in practical seamanship in harbor, afloat, and in action.

Fourth.—Inquiries into the mode of conducting the entrance examination, and the results—the classification and programme of studies for each class—scholarship and conduct rolls—causes of failure to graduate, and system of punishment—chapel exercises, morality, manners, and personal habits of the midshipmen—the accounts and vouchers for the expenditure of government appropriations, including payments made for the use of the cadets—in fine, into the police, discipline, and general management of the institution.

A committee of the Board was authorized and requested to attend the entrance examination of the new class, as well as the final

examination of the graduating class, in order that the report required of the Visitors might cover the operations of the Academy for the year 1864.

Every facility for prosecuting their investigations was extended to the Visitors by the Superintendent, Officers, Professors, and Students.

II. CONDITION OF THE NAVAL ACADEMY IN 1864.

In presenting some details of the condition of the Naval Academy as they found it, and in offering suggestions for its improvement, which the submitting of a report implies, the Visitors are not unmindful that the institution is not at present furnished with permanent buildings and equipments in all respects adapted to its purpose;—that even such as are furnished were selected with reference to a smaller than the present number of pupils;—that its staff of instructors and course of instruction have been disturbed by the pressing exigencies of a great war, calling off into actual service some of its most experienced teachers;—that the education which it aims to give is not general but special, not covering the whole ground of a generous culture, but particularly adapted to make accomplished seamen and midshipmen;—and, moreover, that in an educational field so wide and subjects of inquiry so numerous as attach themselves to the details of such a school, a brief visit, made while the institution is not following its usual daily routine, is not in all respects the most favorable to the formation of just and reliable opinions. They at the same time believe that the government and people expect that the liberal appropriations in its favor will be expended with a judicious economy, and that the knowledge imparted will be accurate, thorough, and professional, and that its graduates will be really fitted for that rank of the service for which they are professedly trained. They recognize the fact that the school is yet in the youth of its development, and also that its purpose is not only to perpetuate naval science as it has been taught, but to maintain a progressive course of instruction, engraving thereon all necessary or possible improvements.

Organization for Administration and Instruction.

The Visitors find the Naval Academy, subordinate to the direct supervision of the Department, under the immediate government of a Superintendent, Commodore George S. Blake, who is held responsible for its discipline and management. He is assisted as chief executive officer by the Commandant of Midshipmen, Commander Donald M. Fairfax, who resides in the Academy building on shore, and is also head of the department of Seamanship, Naval

Gunnery, and Naval and Infantry Tactics. The Commandant is assisted in the different departments of his duty on ship and shore by three senior assistants and eleven assistants, nine of the latter being of the rank of lieutenant, and the remainder lieutenant-commanders. Two of the senior assistants have charge of the Practice-ships Marion and Macedonian, and also assist in instruction; six of the assistants are engaged in executive duty on board the School-ships Constitution and Santee, while the others, as well as these, are charged with certain branches of instruction in the department of which the Commandant is chief.

There are also attached to the Academic Staff one Professor of Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying; two Professors of Mathematics, with six assistants in the same department; one Professor of Natural and-Experimental Philosophy, with two assistants; one Professor of Ethics and English Studies, with nine assistants; one Professor of the French language, with an assistant; one Professor of the Spanish language; one Professor of Drawing and Draughting, with an assistant; one Sword-master, with an assistant; and one Librarian, who acts also as assistant in Mathematics, and Ethics and English studies. The officers not attached to the Academic Staff include a Paymaster, a Surgeon, with two assistants, a Chaplain, (with three, who are engaged as instructors,) a Commissary, Storekeeper, Secretary, Treasurer, and clerks to the Superintendent and Commandant.

The Academic Board is composed of the Superintendent, the officers in charge of the Practice and School-ships, and the professors, except that the professors of French, Spanish, and Drawing take part only upon matters pertaining to their own departments. The Board is required to conduct and regulate all examinations of candidates and students, preparing the necessary papers and reports in connection therewith, to prescribe the order and times of instruction, to recommend text-books for the approval of the Naval Department, and books, instruments, and other necessary material for instruction, to recommend at pleasure the restoration or farther trial of students that have been dismissed or found deficient in scholarship, to grant certificates of graduation, and to report from time to time, on the system of studies and instruction pursued, and propose such improvements as experience may suggest.

Buildings and Material Equipment.

The material arrangements for the accommodation of the Academy, for the lodging, subsistence, and comfort of the pupils in health and sickness, and for study and instruction, both scientific and profes-

national, although made on a sudden emergency, for temporary occupancy, and for a smaller number, are far from being insufficient in extent, or particularly objectionable, when compared with similar arrangements for other great schools. The main building on shore is of wood, originally intended to lodge and board a large number of guests, and as adapted to the uses of the Academy, accommodates about half of the classes as well as most boarding schools provide for their pupils. The arrangements are not as convenient or as safe from fire as those at Annapolis; but they are too good to be complained of, even if they do require a strict observance of regulations, or special organization and diligence to protect from fire, which would carry mourning into many homes. Good discipline and good recitations, and a large amount of military and naval knowledge are secured under the difficulties such as they are, which the Department, be they great or small, will, doubtless, remove at the earliest possible moment. In any permanent or temporary arrangement, on ship or shore, while the privacy and comfort of separate lodgings for pupils should as far as practicable be secured, the Visitors recommend that convenient halls be provided, properly ventilated, warmed and lighted, and supplied with the best dictionaries, encyclopedias, and naval histories and biographies—to be occupied for study at certain hours by such pupils as have not acquired the power of concentrating attention, and the habit of solitary study—a power and habit of the highest importance, but very rarely attained. The same rooms might be open to the pupils at certain hours every day for the purpose of reading naval histories and biographies, and for consulting the encyclopedias and other books of reference. The formation of right habits of study and the habit and mode of reading such books to the best advantage should be made a matter of special and frequent inculcation by the head of each department of study.

The lack of suitable buildings for lodging, subsistence, and study, for a portion of the pupils, is supplied by an extension of the Schoolship System, first inaugurated on board of the "Plymouth," at Annapolis, in 1849, in our system, although always the main feature in the French system of naval education. The old "Constitution" and the "Santee," properly moored in the harbor of Newport and adapted, are used for the residence and study of the younger classes, which are in this way brought more readily into the daily routine of the school and the service without the vulgar annoyances, to which the youngest classes are almost universally subjected, when lodged in the immediate neighborhood of the next older class. If School-

ships are to constitute a permanent, integral feature of the Academy, the details of arrangements for separate lodging and class study require additional attention. For the present, recitations are attended in suitable buildings on Goat Island, near which the ships are moored and reached by covered passages. On this island is sufficient room for all sorts of athletic sports, military drill, and target practice.

The "Macedonian" and "Marion" are used for practice in the evolution of guns and other naval tactics by the several classes. To these are added, at least for the purposes of the summer cruise, the screw steamer "Marblehead" and the yacht "America."

Number of Pupils—Entrance Examination.

The number of pupils belonging to the Naval Academy in the year closing June, 1864, was 458, distributed into four classes, generally according to the period of their connection with the institution, with a staff of 57 officers and instructors. This is an astonishing development of the Academy in respect to pupils, as well as in the number of the teaching staff, and equipment for professional training, since Oct. 10th, 1845, when the Academy found a location at Fort Severn in Annapolis, or since January 1st, 1846, when it was reported to have 36 midshipmen and six professors and instructors, including the Superintendent. To judge of the progressive development of the institution, and of the results of the annual examination which they were appointed to witness, the Visitors deemed it necessary to ascertain the average condition of each class as to age and attainments, at the time of becoming connected with the Academy, and with the general results of the entrance examination—this examination being the only check on the admission of unqualified candidates—no previous examination being held in the districts or States from which they come.

By law and regulations governing the admission of candidates into the Academy, the maximum number of pupils is limited to 526, viz., two for every Congressional district or territory, appointed on the nomination of the member or delegate, from actual residents of the district, if such nomination is made to fill a vacancy duly notified, prior to the first day of July in any year, and if not so made, by the Secretary of the Navy; and twenty-five more appointed by the President, two for and from the District of Columbia, ten from the country at large, ten from the sons of officers of the army and navy, and three from the enlisted boys of the navy. All candidates who receive notice of their provisional appointment must present themselves to the Superintendent for examination be-

tween the 20th and 31st of July, or September in case of second appointments. The examination is twofold; first, before a medical board, consisting of the surgeon resident and two other medical officers designated by the Department; and second, before the Academic Board. The candidate must be found, according to the law of 1864, to be between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years—of good moral character—physically sound, well formed, and of robust constitution—and pass a satisfactory examination in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography and English grammar.

The requisition as to age was advanced from 16 in 1861, to its present maximum in 1864, while the Board was in session, and conforms in that respect to the age which they had decided to recommend. The traveling expenses of the successful candidates are paid.

The Visitors were furnished on application with tables exhibiting the statistics of these entrance examinations from 1851 to 1863 inclusive. From these tables it appears that out of 1,522 candidates, nominated and appointed conditionally, but afterwards examined, 313 or one-fifth of the whole were rejected as unqualified, although the attainments required were such as any graduate of a common school should possess. Of the number (1,209) admitted, 466, more than one-third, failed on the first year's course. Out of the number who failed at the earlier examinations, three hundred and thirty-one were turned back for a second trial, and after floundering along in the lower sections, only a very small per cent. succeeded in graduating. Of the whole number admitted, (1,209,) only 269 graduated, including 93 who were received into the service from 1861 to 1864 before completing their studies.

From another table, covering the entrance examinations from 1860 to 1864 inclusive, it appears that out of 1,093 candidates who presented themselves for admission, 807 were admitted, while 53 were rejected by the Medical Board, 219 by the Academic Board, 11 withdrew, and 3 were found to be over the maximum age.

From another table, exhibiting the ages of the successful and unsuccessful candidates, it appears that out of 1,141 candidates examined, 201 (18 per cent.) were rejected, and of the number rejected, 177 were under 17 years of age. Of the 940 admitted, 313 (33 per cent.) failed the first year, and of the number that failed, 254 were under 17 years of age. The average age of the candidates admitted was 16 years and 2 months, and of those who failed, 15 years and 10 months.

The fact that one-fifth of the whole number nominated failed to

pass the examination in the most rudimentary branches of a common English education—and in only the most elementary portions of these branches—indicates unmistakably how little regard has been paid to school attendance and proficiency in the selection of candidates. To judge how far these failures might be attributed to a laudable strictness on the part of the Academic Board, the entrance examination papers, which are filed away from year to year, were called for, and from those it appears that the questions asked and exercises required were few and simple—far too few and simple—far below the requirements of any Public High School; and yet such wretched perversions of the orthography of the most common words, such mistakes in American geography, such bungling use of the English language in the composition of a simple letter, such numerous failures in arithmetical operations not going beyond the elementary rules and simple exercises in fractions and proportion, it would be difficult to gather from all the Public High School entrance examinations of the country. More strictness on the part of the Academic Board would have saved the government hundreds of thousands of dollars, for of the candidates allowed to pass, two-fifths fail on the studies of the first year, although these studies belong to a good English education, and are preliminary to a special scientific naval training—showing a want of suitable preparatory knowledge, of aptitude for study, or of will and desire to learn. A portion of those who fail the first year are put back for a second year's trial, and in some instances for a third, and the proportion of those thus put back who finally succeed in graduating is very small, thereby causing a total loss of the thousands of dollars expended upon each. From data gathered from the annual reports of the Department, it appears the annual expense of a pupil of the Naval school exceeds \$1,500, and that each graduate who has been four years in the institution costs the government over \$10,000. But the pecuniary loss is not the only consideration—the places filled by pupils, no matter what their courage or general ability, unable or unwilling to profit by the opportunities of scientific and professional instruction so lavishly provided, might be filled by competent, ambitious, diligent, and courageous young men, if they could have had their qualifications tested by a competitive examination.

Daily Routine.

The morning gun calls the cadets up at 6 o'clock. Inspection of the rooms follows, when the bedding must be found arranged, the rooms swept, and every thing in order. Ten minutes are given to chapel services, and half an hour to breakfast, which is over at 7.15.

Forty minutes recreation are then allowed, during which sick-call is called and such as report themselves indisposed are marched to the hospital and reported to the surgeon. At 7.55 the sections are formed under the supervision of the Officer of the Day, assisted by the section leaders, and at 8 o'clock, on given signal, they are marched in close order to their recitation rooms, in perfect silence and with strict military decorum. All who are not engaged in the recitation rooms are expected to be preparing their lessons in their own rooms, and it is the duty of the superintendents of floors to see that they are there. The dismissal and re-formation of sections at the end of each hour are conducted with similar formality and regulated by special signals. Study and recitation continue until 1 o'clock, when the cadets are formed in order by the captains of crews, (the whole corps being organized in nine guns' crews, for the purposes of discipline and practical instruction,) all special orders and rules for the day are read, and they are then marched into the mess hall for dinner, which occupies forty minutes. From 1.40 to 1.55 recreation is allowed and the sections are then again formed as in the morning for recitation and study. At 4 o'clock ten minutes are given to preparation for drill, as may be the order of the day, and then follow instruction in fencing, infantry or artillery drill, and recreation until parade and roll-call at sunset. Supper immediately succeeds, to which half an hour is given, and recreation until study-call at 6.30 or 7.00, according to the season. Study hours continue until tattoo, at 9.30, during which time the cadets must all be in their rooms, and after inspection of rooms all lights are extinguished at 10 o'clock.

The routine on board ship is as far as possible the same. No control is exercised over the occupation of the time by the cadets during study hours, provided good order is preserved. No studies or exercises are required on Saturday afternoon and one-half of each class may then be allowed liberty beyond the limits of the Academy. A vacation is given at the close of the second year, the only one in the whole course. As means of recreation, chess, draughts, and all games of chance are strictly forbidden. On the other hand, every facility is afforded for games of ball, boxing, fencing, boating, &c.

Course of Instruction, Examinations, and Merit-Rolls.

The course of instruction at the Naval Academy is comprised in eight departments, with their special branches, as follows:—

First Department, in six branches—Practical Seamanship, Theory and Practice of Gunnery, Naval Tactics, Infantry Tactics, Howitzer Drill, and the Art of Defense.

Second Department, Mathematics, in seven branches—Arithmetic and Algebra, Geometry, plane and solid, Trigonometry, Mensuration, Descriptive Geometry, Analytical Geometry, and the Differential and Integral Calculus.

Third Department, in four branches—Astronomy, Practical Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying.

Fourth Department, in eight branches—Mechanics of Solids, Mechanics of Liquids, Pneumatics, Acoustics, Electricity, Heat, Chemistry, and the Steam-Engine.

Fifth Department, in seven branches—English Grammar, Descriptive Geography, Physical Geography, Outlines of History, Rhetoric, Ethics, and Political Science.

Sixth Department—the French Language.

Seventh Department—the Spanish Language.

Eighth Department—Drawing and Draughting.

These studies are distributed into four annual courses for the four regular classes, each class being subdivided into convenient sections, usually according to the relative standing of the members. During the last year the first class, of 36 cadets, has been graded into three sections; the second class, of 59 cadets, into five sections; the third class into six sections; and the fourth class, during the first term, with 176 cadets, into fourteen sections, and in the second term, with 156 cadets, into twelve sections—each section receiving separate instruction.

The more difficult portions of the several branches may be reserved for the higher sections of the classes, and it is frequently the fact that in certain branches no instruction whatever is given to the lowest sections. Deviation from the general rule for the admission of cadets only in the month of September has made the formation of "Intermediate Classes" necessary, so that there are now two divisions of the second class and two divisions of the third class. By this means the number of sections is increased, the labors of instruction augmented, and much inconvenience in other respects created. The demands of the times have also introduced other irregularities into the course, hurrying the more forward sections through their studies and detailing them into active service at the close of the third year, with or without a graduating examination, while the lower sections are retained through the whole four years.

The Commandant of Midshipmen and the several professors are each at the head of a special department, with such assistants as may be necessary. The professors, instructors, and assistants are responsible for the regular and orderly conduct of their respective

classes and sections while under instruction, and must report all want of preparation, absence, or misconduct. Daily notes are taken of the progress and relative merit of each pupil in each of his studies. The assistants must make weekly reports of such notes to the heads of their departments, who in turn report to the Superintendent, recommending such transfers as should be made from one section to another. The scale of daily merit in each study embraces seven grades, with corresponding values designated by numbers, as follows:—Thorough, (4.0)—Very Good, (3.5)—Good, (3.0)—Tolerable, (2.5)—Indifferent, (2.0)—Bad, (1.0)—Complete Failure, (0.) The average standing for the week in each study accompanies the report. Monthly reports are drawn up by the Academic Board for each month in the academic year, showing the relative standing of the members of each class in their different studies, and also their conduct or demerits. These reports are based upon the weekly reports and upon the results of the examinations, when such are held within the month, and are posted for public inspection. The examination weeks are considered of equal weight with those of the month.

The examinations are held by the Academic Board in the months of February and June, and are sufficiently thorough to enable the Board to decide upon the proficiency and relative merits of the members of the several classes. After each June examination a "general merit-roll" is formed for each class, for which purpose a maximum number or value is assigned to each of the principal branches in the several departments. The total amount of these maxima throughout the course is 1,000, and they are distributed among the departments and branches, for the different classes, as follows:—In the first year, to mathematics, 20—grammar and rhetoric, 10—geography, 10—history and composition, 10—drawing, 10—conduct, 5—total, 65;—In the second year, to seamanship, 20—mathematics, 35—grammar and rhetoric, 15—history and composition, 10—French, 30—drawing, 25—conduct, 15—total, 150;—In the third year, to seamanship, 40—gunnery, 20—infantry tactics, 25—howitzer drill, 20—mathematics, 45—general astronomy, 25—practical astronomy, navigation, and surveying, 15—mechanics, 30—physics, 25—moral science and international law, 20—French, 40—conduct, 30—total, 335;—In the fourth year, to seamanship, 100—gunnery, 60—naval tactics, 30—practical astronomy, navigation, and surveying, 75—physics, 30—steam-engine, 35—moral science and international law, 20—Spanish, 50—conduct, 50—total, 450. The minima values are fixed at one-third of the corresponding maxima.

The "general merit-roll" includes only such as pass a satisfactory examination in all the principal branches of their class and have not exceeding 200 demerits recorded against them. In the formation of the roll, the individual having the highest standing in any branch for the year receives the corresponding maximum number, while the one who has the lowest standing receives the corresponding minimum. The intermediate members of the class receive numbers proceeding by equal differences from the maximum to the minimum, in the order of their relative merit as fixed by their "class merit-rolls." The gradation for conduct is determined by allowing the maximum number to such as have no demerits, and for others diminishing that maximum by $\frac{1}{100}$ part for every demerit recorded against them. All the numbers thus assigned to the several members for the different branches of study and for conduct are then added together, and the members are arranged in each class according to the aggregates thus obtained. For the graduating class a "graduating merit-roll" is formed by adding the aggregate numbers of each member upon the several "general merit-rolls" for the four years and arranging the order of the members according to these new aggregates. The highest number reached upon the "graduating merit-roll," by any one of the class just graduating, was 859.

If any student at any examination fails to pass a satisfactory examination in any principal branch, or has recorded against him more than 200 demerits since the commencement of the academic year, a report is made of the case to the Secretary of the Navy, showing the habits of study, aptitude for study and for sea duties, and his general habits and conduct; and upon his decision the student is dismissed, or upon recommendation of the Academic Board, allowed to continue at the Academy for further trial.

The final graduating examination is held by a special Board and occurs, by a recent regulation, not less than one year after the close of the course. This examination embraces seamanship and naval tactics, practical gunnery, navigation, and management of steam-engines, and the standing in these branches is combined to determine the relative merits of the candidates. In assigning numbers, 1,000 is considered the maximum and 333 the minimum for such as are considered qualified for promotion, and the Board assigns such numbers within these limits as will fairly express the relative qualifications of the members of the class. The numbers thus assigned, when added to the numbers already assigned on the "graduating merit-roll," determine the standing of the graduates as ensigns; the highest number taking precedence.

Text-Books. Studies of the past Year.

The method of teaching as at present pursued is almost wholly by means of text-books and recitations. A series of lectures is delivered in connection with the recitations in Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. Without underrating the office of the text-book, the success of the French Polytechnic method of teaching even the higher Mathematics by lectures, collateral study, and examination, and the experience of all schools, of the power of the human voice and of the human eye to win, hold, and harmonize attention, should not be lost to this institution, many of whose pupils need the influence of such a method to vitalize their powers of thinking and to bring within their grasp the general principle or doctrine of the subjects taught.

The division of the classes into small sections of 12-14 midshipmen each, of nearly equal standing, tends to secure the personal and thorough instruction of each and all. The attempt was made, by furnishing prepared blanks to the several departments, to ascertain the character and actual amount of the studies and exercises accomplished by the several sections during the eight months of study of the year 1863-4. The returns made are not complete, but it appears that the English studies of the lowest class (in 12-14 sections) have consisted of one lesson a week in Spelling and Derivation, four in Bullion's English Grammar, four during the first term in Cornell's Geography, and during the second term in General History, with daily exercises in Composition and the exercise of the Voice; in Mathematics, five lessons a week during the first term in Greenleaf's Common School Arithmetic, and during the second term in Davies' University Algebra. In the upper sections, the Algebra was commenced within the first term and more or less nearly finished at the close of the year. The highest section had also five lessons a week for three weeks in Davies' Elementary Geometry (5 books) and instruction twice a week in Drawing. The space in the several text-books actually gone over varied considerably in the different sections. It will be seen, therefore, that the studies of this class, with the exception of Algebra and Geometry, are simply those of every common school, and yet the lower section is reported as having succeeded but "imperfectly" in Grammar, and "very imperfectly" in Algebra. It is also to be stated that a part of the class had received eight weeks additional preparatory instruction during August and September, 1863.

In the third class, of six sections, there were three lessons per

week, during the first term, in American History, and during the second term in Rhetoric. The lower section prepared six English compositions each term—the highest section, weekly compositions through the second term. All the sections prepared three lessons weekly in French during the first term and four lessons during the second, but with very unequal progress. In Mathematics, (five lessons per week,) Algebra was completed by the lower sections and reviewed by the higher in the first four or five weeks, when Elementary Geometry was taken up by all, and completed in the first term by the highest section. In the second term, Elementary Geometry for three weeks by the lowest section, and Trigonometry for the rest of the term—in the highest section, Trigonometry for ten weeks, Mensuration two weeks, and Analytical Geometry commenced, for three weeks. The first section had also three lessons a week in Marine and Topographical Drawing, and during the first term one lesson a week in Seamanship.

In the second class, of five sections, during the first term, five lessons a week in Analytical Geometry, replaced in the highest section by the Differential and Integral Calculus for five weeks; four lessons a week in Statics, to which the first section added Dynamics, three weeks; five lessons a week in Surveying, three weeks in each term, with practical exercises. The lowest sections had also four lessons a week in French, and the first section weekly lessons in Seamanship and Infantry Tactics, and two lessons a week in Gunnery. In the second term, five lessons a week in Dynamics, Hydrostatics, Pneumatics and Acoustics, with twelve lectures, Surveying, three weeks, and Astronomy, ten weeks. Two lessons a week in Wayland's Moral Science. The first section had also two lessons a week in Gunnery.

The first class, consisting of the three more advanced sections of the second class, and in its third year of study, during the first term were pursuing chiefly second class studies, having five lessons a week in Physics, including Statics, Dynamics, Hydrostatics, Acoustics, Magnetism, and Electricity, with sixteen lectures; four lessons a week in Theory and Practice of Navigation (six weeks) and General Astronomy (eleven weeks); two lessons a week in Seamanship, and two in Gunnery, Naval Light Artillery, and Field Fortifications. In the second term, four lessons a week in Heat and Chemistry, with nine lectures; three in Wayland's Ethics and Kent's Constitution of U. S., and International Law; three in the Theory and Practice of Navigation; two in Seamanship; and one in Gunnery, &c. Two lessons a week were given through the year in Spanish, by means of the French.

In addition to the daily lessons of each class are the general practical exercises by divisions, by the higher classes on shore embracing daily exercises in Fencing, three exercises weekly in Infantry Drill, Howitzer Drill once a week, the Great Gun Drill upon the Practice Ships twice weekly in favorable weather, and a certain amount of Target Practice by the first class. The younger classes on the school-ships have also their special drills. Special instruction is given them in boating, and the numerous cutters and launches belonging to the ships afford ample opportunity for recreation and practice of this kind at suitable times. The use of the "Rainbow," a schooner-rigged craft of 15-20 tons, is also not unfrequently allowed to pleasure parties made up from the cadets. Weekly bathing is enjoined and practised throughout the year as a sanitary regulation, but the absence of the cadets from port during the summer months, while on the cruise, prevents the attainment of that knowledge and skill in the art of swimming, which seem to the Visitors so essential a requisite.

The general results of the examinations and exercises as observed by the Visitors, may be stated as in general very favorable. The examinations of the classes were made by sections and conducted by the individual professors of the departments, with great fairness and impartiality, without any purpose of embarrassing the pupils, and for the single object of eliciting the extent, accuracy, and vividness of the pupil's knowledge of the topic. Written lists of questions were furnished to the cadets on entering the examination rooms, which were usually answered in writing upon the black-board, with opportunity for oral explanation. The difference in the proficiency shown by the higher and lower sections, in all except the first class, was very strongly marked. In the written answers, the writing was fair and legible, and the spelling and composition very creditable—revealing in these respects an immense improvement upon the entrance examination papers of the same cadets. The Visitors would suggest that in future examinations there should be more of paper, even if there should be less of blackboard work, and that a portion of the questions should be handed in on slips by the Visitors and answered in writing with ink, in presence of the Board, by every member of the section present.

The practical professional exercises of the cadets upon the parade ground and on board ship, embracing all the different branches of shore and ship duty, (including a harbor cruise on board the Practice Steamer,) and designed to exemplify the proficiency of the classes in seamanship, gunnery, and naval and infantry tactics, were

performed in the most satisfactory manner, justifying the professional pride manifestly felt by those taking part in them. Moreover, these exercises, instead of being executed under the direction, as heretofore, of the respective Academic officers in command, were conducted under the charge wholly of officers appointed from the midshipmen themselves.

Physical Training.

The unavoidable exposures and risks of the naval service require not only a sound mind—a mind well informed, quick, and accurate in its operations, but a sound body—a body supple, athletic, and tough to resist the rapid alternations and continuous exposures of wet and cold weather. Although careful and continuous training can do much to develop and strengthen the qualities referred to, the records of the Academy and of the service, as well as the present appearance of many of the cadets, show that sufficient regard has not been paid to vigor and elasticity of physical constitution, in the original appointment, or the entrance medical examination. The regular military drill and evolutions, the small arm and other exercises, in which the whole corps participates, the professional practice in gunnery and seamanship, all help to supply these deficiencies. There is still room for more careful scrutiny for inherited tendencies and hidden defects, in the entrance medical examination, as well as in the regular course of naval education, for a well arranged system of gymnastic exercises and athletic games, to give suppleness to the joints, steadiness to the nerves, hardness to the bones, and elasticity to the sinews. Such games and sports as the young universally accept with eagerness and pursue with unflagging interest, should be systematically introduced. Ample time, room, and encouragement by rank, prizes, and publicity, should be given to make a fondness and indulgence in such games as cricket, football, leaping, boating, &c., the habit of every member of the lower classes at least. An hour a day devoted to these healthful sports, even if taken from the study and class-room,—even more, if taken from the idle lounging, or the listless walk, or vulgar scuffling, will give at once health and strength, increased capacity for study, and valuable social qualities and manly virtues—all results of emphatically the highest professional value.

As part of the physical training of naval cadets, the expansion of the chest and the culture of the vocal organs should receive more special attention than the word of command on parade, and the questions and answers in the examination would indicate they had received. A clear, full, decisive voice is an element of influence on

the deck at all times, and of power in the hour of danger, as well as on the field or in the senate chamber.

The first beginning of habits, secret or open, which waste the vigor of the mind and body, should be watched with professional skill as well as parental interest, and those cadets in whom such indulgencies have grown into habits, should be cut off from the institution and service without hesitation and without reprieve.

Domestic and Sanitary Arrangements.

The institution is peculiarly fortunate in having had for years a Commissary who understands his business and gives universal satisfaction to all concerned. The neatness of the kitchen, the supply, preparation, and serving of the food, the geniality, good order, and enjoyment of the mess-hours, and the fact that no complaint reached the Visitors from any one of the 450 boys, blessed with good health and plenty of physical exercise, makes the record of this department an exception to similar departments in other large collegiate institutions. This comes from having the right man in the right place.

The hospital arrangements on shipboard and on shore, although not as large and quiet as would be desirable or as would be provided specially in permanent quarters, are sufficient for the demands on their accommodations. The location of the institution and the judicious arrangement and management of the Academy as to cleanliness, exercise, and diet, as well as the presence of a surgeon and two assistants on the Academic staff, and numerous attendants for hospital service, would seem to act as a preventive of accidents and disease, the mean daily percentage of sick on ship and shore from Oct. 1st to May 31st being returned at a little more than three per cent. out of an average attendance of 447 midshipmen. In calling for the annual reports to the Department of the medical condition of the institution, the Visitors were informed that a duplicate copy or abstract was not retained. Such copy or abstract would be highly convenient, and would seem to be even necessary, if it is deemed advisable to have a periodical inspection of the sanitary condition and requirements of the school.

Religious Observances and Instruction.

The regulations require that the students shall be assembled in the chapel for prayers daily, fifteen minutes before the breakfast hour, and that divine service shall be held on Sunday, which officers and students are expected to attend, unless excused on the ground of conscientious scruples, declared in writing by the former, and by the parents or guardians of the latter. These daily and Sunday ex-

ercises are conducted by the regular Chaplain of the institution. He is at the present time assisted in these and other such voluntary religious labors by three other chaplains of the Navy, who are now in residence as assistant professors. There are four Bible classes composed of cadets, and over one-eighth of the members are communicants in the different denominations of Newport. The student who brings, in his moral culture from home, religious convictions and habits, can easily preserve and strengthen them here, and no amount of instruction in the institution can compensate for the neglect of parental example and teaching in this respect. The absence of the religious element in the character and training of youth is a fundamental defect, and no institution of learning, special or general, can safely, for any length of time, dispense with appropriate and adequate means of religious instruction and a practical recognition of religious obligations, consistent with due regard to the religious convictions of individuals and the equal rights of all religious denominations. Such individual convictions and denominational rights can be best respected, not by ignoring the subjects themselves, but by selecting the chaplain from time to time so as to represent different religious denominations, and in all cases, in reference to his ability to be useful as chaplain in this institution.

The reading of the Sabbath, and one of the exercises of Monday morning might be so arranged as to harmonize with the religious observances and uses of Sunday, and the whole be made to unfold and enforce the great, definite, and unchanging obligations of every human being to his fellow-men, to his country, and to God.

As part of the religious and moral instruction of the Academy, more at least should be attempted to prevent, and if these unfortunately exist, to eradicate certain vulgar and vicious habits, whose beginnings are small, but which ultimately take complete possession of the individual. Although the Visitors can not, from their own knowledge, speak of its existence, they have had too many assurances from those who did know, to have any doubt of the prevalence of the vulgar and immoral practice of profanity, and that several of those addicted to it are among the youngest members of their classes, who came here entirely pure in this respect. The medical and police experience of the institution detects the occasional existence of other tastes and habits more directly affecting the health and morality of their victims, and which should and doubtless do receive the considerate and vigilant attention of the authorities, especially of the Chaplain, Surgeon and Superintendent.

Discipline.

The Superintendent is charged with and held responsible for the good order and discipline of the Academy, and it is made the duty of every officer, professor, and instructor, having knowledge of any violation of law or regulation, or of any crime, irregularity, neglect, or other improper conduct, of which any student or any other one has been guilty, to report the same without delay to the Superintendent. Offenses are defined with great minuteness and precision, and the circle of punishments embraces demerits on the roll of conduct, private and public reprimand, confinement to Academy grounds, to room, or to guard-room, and withdrawal on necessity, or dismissal. In the administration of discipline, the Superintendent is clothed with much power, which is exercised by the present incumbent with great discretion and the happiest results. The private memorandum and letter book of this officer, respecting every case of discipline during the year, was placed before the Visitors, and they can bear willing testimony to the preventive admonition and parental regard with which he has exercised his authority.

Demerita, to be considered in making up the conduct-rolls, are assigned for all offenses. Such delinquencies as are not deemed deserving of severer punishment are grouped into four classes, which count ten, eight, six, four, and two demerits respectively, besides a miscellaneous class counting from one to ten demerits according to circumstances. The *total* demerite of each cadet is expressed by the sum of all demerits standing against him on record for the year, increased for the third class by one-sixth, for the second class by one third, and for the first class by one-half.

No punishment of any kind can be inflicted by other authority than that of the Superintendent. Report is read at evening parade of all demerits and other punishments that have been inflicted during the day, and opportunity is always given for excuse or explanation. Full record is made of every case of discipline, and a monthly conduct-roll is publicly posted showing the number of demerits against each cadet. It is evident that this conduct-roll does not fairly represent the character and conduct of the cadets, as a large number of demerits may be gained by numerous minor offenses, which involve neither immorality nor lawlessness, while a cadet who has been guilty of most flagrant acts of vice and disobedience may still be charged with but few demerits. Yet the conduct-roll has but a subordinate influence in determining the general merit-rolls, and in the question of dismissal the fuller record of punishments, as

well as the demerit-roll, has its weight in determining the action of the authorities.

Financial Affairs.

All money appropriated for the support of the Naval Academy is drawn for by the Paymaster and by him deposited with the Sub-Treasurer in Boston. The Paymaster draws upon him, from time to time, to make his disbursements.

The principal heads of expenditure for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1864, are as follows:—

Pay of Commissioned and Warrant Officers, Midshipmen, Seamen, and others,	\$241,771.71
Pay of Professors and Assistants,	35,000.00
Expenses of the Academy, School and Practice Ships, Surgeon's necessaries, contingent expenses, and repairs of all kinds,	72,753.84
The total of all expenditures from 1st July, 1863, to May 31st, 1864, is reported at \$383,419.41.	

From the pay of the midshipmen, which is \$500 per annum, \$100 are reserved yearly to be paid upon graduation, though this sum is sometimes diminished by unavoidable circumstances. There is also deducted from their pay, the amount of board—at present \$16.50 per month—and \$3.00 per month for washing. The aggregate of these sums is paid monthly by the Paymaster to the Commissary. Articles of clothing for the midshipmen are provided under contract by the Storekeeper with the approval of the Commandant. All other articles for their use are purchased by the Storekeeper, from funds provided by the Paymaster, at prices sanctioned by the Commandant.

The midshipmen receive such articles as they desire upon requisition approved by the Commandant, and no other articles are permitted to be sold to them than those which the Storekeeper is authorized to have. Each midshipman has a pass-book in which his purchases are entered, and regular report is made by the Storekeeper to the Paymaster, who charges against each the aggregate amount of his purchases. On the 30th April, 1864, the amount of balances still due to the midshipmen was \$44,579.93, the aggregate of indebtedness by them being only \$111.90. The amounts to the credit of the members of the graduating class vary from \$180 to \$400.

The accounts of the Commissary are examined quarterly by a committee of three officers appointed by the Superintendent, to whom they make report. The Visitors deemed it their duty to go,

behind the reports of this committee, and deputed one of their number to examine personally the original accounts of the Commissary and Storekeeper. As the result of this examination, which was conducted with the most rigid scrutiny, it is but justice to state that they found the accounts correct in all their details, and the prices of all articles as low as they can be purchased at wholesale in the city of New York, and the Visitors consider the financial affairs of the Academy as conducted with commendable skill and fidelity.

While the Visitors bear willing testimony to the fidelity with which the financial affairs of the Academy, as well as the departments of subsistence, discipline, and instruction, are and have been administered, they can not but express their disappointment at the very small number of officers of the lowest rank which the institution has contributed to the naval service. With an aggregate annual expenditure of several hundred thousand dollars, the aggregate number of graduates, since the opening of the four years' course, in 1851, including the three classes of 1858, '59 and '60, which were ordered into active service in 1862 and '63, before completing their studies, is but 269, or at the rate of less than 22 each year, at an expense to the country of over \$12,000 for each graduate. If the 93 who entered the service with only two or three years' residence had completed their course, the aggregate expense for each graduate would have exceeded \$15,000. This, as it appears to the Visitors, small result, is due mainly to the want of care in selecting candidates, and the very low standard of general scholarship required for entering the Academy. The experience of this institution is the same as that of others of the same character; any mode of selection which does not test in advance the natural aptitude and preparation for the special studies of the course, and exclude rigorously all who are found deficient, will burden the institution with a number of students which will have to be thrown off after months and sometimes years of struggling to incorporate them into the regular classes and to the manifest injury, in the meantime, of the scholarship and character of the institution. While a nomination by patronage, and a pass examination have a direct tendency to reduce the average ability of the selected candidates to the minimum required, a competitive examination raises the general average to the maximum ability of all who apply.

Graduating Class of 1864.

The present graduating class (consisting after the final examination of 31) at the close of its third year has completed the whole course

prescribed, excepting that the Calculus has been omitted and that Surveying has been limited to instruction in Harbor and Coast Surveying, from Bowditch. Steam and the Steam-engine have received fuller attention from this than any preceding class, embracing six weeks of theory and practice on board of the steamer Marblehead—altogether too little attention for a department so important. Two summer cruises have been made by this class—both coast cruises—the first on board the John Adams, from June 6th to Sept. 30th, 1862; the second from 16th June to 25th Sept., 1864, in which the following vessels were united, viz.: Flagship Macedonian, sloop of war Marion, screw steamer Marblehead, and the yacht America. Upon these cruises the midshipmen were practiced in all the regular duties attaching to the posts of lieutenant and master, taking by turns upon themselves the working of the ship, in the different vessels; making and calculating observations for determining the ship's position, going through all possible manœuvres and performing the duties incident to the management of ships in action, in heavy weather, or in the many emergencies which arise requiring superior skill in seamanship. They were engaged in instructing the crews in gunnery, in infantry and sword-drill, and in drill of the battery. They were also detailed for actual boat service, and for the transferring of howitzers and marines from ship to shore. During the last cruise Meyer's code of signals was used by the graduating class as signal officers, in communicating from vessel to vessel in the fleet, and instruction was also given in the Naval Code of signals, and in Navigation throughout the cruise to all cadets on board. In addition to these cruises the yacht America, in charge of cadets of this class, as commanding officers, has been engaged in the performance of despatch-boat duty, and also special "coast picket duty" in search for the Tallahassee.

The experience of this class—made up of three advanced sections of what is now the second class (the graduating class of 1865,) would seem to indicate, that under a system of appointment that should admit from the start only those who had maturity of mind and requisite scholarship, the professional studies of the Academy might be completed in three years. This is one year longer than the course of the French Naval School at Brest, the entrance examination of which would exclude most of the graduates of our Academy.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS.

The Visitors close their report with the following suggestions, as the results of their examinations and conferences, in reference to the

further development of the Naval Academy and the extension of nautical education generally, for the consideration of the Department.

I. Until the pupils of the Naval Academy have gone through the theoretical and practical course of instruction provided in this institution expressly to qualify them to act as Midshipmen, the Visitors recommend that they be designated as *Naval Cadets*—simply *candidates* for the lowest official rank in the Navy—and that no cadet be rated as midshipman, no matter how well up he may be in his studies, until he has had at least eighteen months of professional practice afloat, towards which time the actual time at sea of each experimental cruise shall be credited.

II. As the most direct blow to the hindrances which practically exclude a large portion of the youth of the country, no matter how strong may be their predilection or great their acquired fitness for the naval service, from even a chance of being admitted to this national school;—as the most effectual preventive of the disappointments now experienced by individuals and families in the failure of many appointees to pass the entrance examination, or to meet even the low requirements of the first year's course;—as the only effectual way of ridding the institution of the low average ability and attainments which characterize the lower sections of every class, and of bringing up the talent and scholarship and conduct of the whole corps to the average of the first two sections;—as a sure guaranty against the early resignation of officers educated at the public expense for a life service in the Navy, and of a progressive and honorable career as long as life and health last;—as a powerful attraction to draw to this department of the public service a fair share of the best talent and loftiest ambition of the youth of the country, and as a stimulus to their best efforts for self and school improvement for this purpose—the Visitors recommend the immediate abandonment of the custom of selecting candidates for admission by individual patronage, in consideration of neighborhood, relationship, or party connection, or the better motives of the poverty or the public service of parents, and that all appointments be hereafter made in consideration of the personal merit of the applicant, ascertained by a public competitive examination, conducted before an impartial tribunal, constituted as shall be prescribed by law. Admission, sought and obtained in this way, will be honorable to the successful candidates, a source of pride to the neighborhood and State from which they come, a reward to the teachers who have prepared them, and a stimulus to the industry and good conduct of their comrades at

home. The classes of the Academy, replenished every year by new recruits, all of whom have sought the service from personal choice and won their place by personal merit founded on natural aptitude and vigor of mind and acquired knowledge, and who regard the diligent improvement of these opportunities of professional study and practice as the true road to honorable promotion hereafter, to be gained by farther industry and devotion—will at once have an average ability and scholarship equal to that now attained by only five or six out of every one hundred, and a large proportion of the cases of discipline, the “dead weights,” the re-examinations, and the failures from inability, distaste, or want of preparatory knowledge, will forever disappear from the records of the Academy.

These suggestions have not the merit of originality nor the objections of novelty. The principle recommended has stood the test of seventy years' trial in France in naval and similar public schools, and is now in successful operation in England, as well as in most of the military schools of Europe. It has been again and again urged by thoughtful friends of this institution and of our other national school at West Point, as the most effectual remedy for the evils complained of. The Academic Board of this Academy, in answer to a request from a committee in 1858 for its opinion on this point, replied:—“The Academic Board has long been of the opinion that the present system of appointing midshipmen without care in their selection, was undermining the very existence of the institution. The records of the Academy show that scarcely more than one-fourth of those admitted graduate. The fault lies with the appointing power, which has not kept the institution supplied with the proper material, and the Board has been powerless in applying a remedy. It has done all in its power by recommending a higher standard of proficiency.” The Visitors for 1862, in the Report of their examinations, remark:—“After a careful examination of the subject, the Board has been forced to the conclusion that the selection of candidates has not been made with sufficient reference to the wants of the public service, but has been and continues to be regarded as a portion of the patronage of the members of Congress making the nominations. The evil does not stop here; for in many cases, after they have been appointed without regard to talents or fitness, and have obtained admission to the institution, and subsequently have been found incapable to pursue the studies of the class to which they belong, the influence of the same member of Congress originally nominating them is successfully used to continue them at the institution, in obtaining authority for them to re-commence their studies by joining a lower class; thus retaining

those wanting in talents and fitness, to the exclusion of others of suitable qualifications that might be presented. An institution like this, in which the students are educated and supported by the government, ought to have them selected from the highest and most promising youths of the country."⁴

The same general principle, selection by merit, ascertained by the same general method, competitive examination, conducted on such conditions as Congress shall authorize or prescribe, has been recommended for appointments to the kindred national institution—the Military Academy at West Point—with the view of removing the same hindrances and remedying the same defects in the practical working of that school. That eminent military teacher and administrator, General Thayer, under whom the Academy, notwithstanding many hindrances and defects, attained its highest development, recommended the adoption of this principle at the outset of his administration, after having seen its successful operation in the military schools of France; and he has recently, after the lapse of nearly fifty years, all of them spent in actual experience or observation of the practical results of a different principle, renewed the recommendation in a communication to the Secretary of War. He has, within the present year, declared his belief that the adoption at the start, and the continuous recognition of this principle, the selection of candidates for admission on the ground of personal merit and aptitude for the special purposes of the institution, in appointments to the Military Academy, would have more than doubled its usefulness, would have avoided most of the difficulties of administration which it has encountered, would have prevented the popular prejudices which demagogues and disappointed parents and Congressmen have fostered, and would have gained for it a larger measure of the popular favor.

The Visitors of the Military Academy for 1863, in their Report

* An early friend of this institution, on learning the fact stated in the same Report of 1862, from which the above extract is taken, "that in the course of six years one hundred and twenty-four students were turned back to pursue a second time portions of the academic course," and of this number only six passed the final examination, (thereby costing the country over \$300,000 in pay, salaries, and equipment, for absolutely nothing, and at the same time depriving the naval service of an equal number of competent young officers,) writes to a member of this Board as follows:—"I have had the curiosity to question fifty middies, as I happened to meet with them, without selection, and representing different classes in the institution and different States, as to the circumstances of their appointment—and of these fifty, forty were the near relations or sons of political friends of the parties making the nominations, and five were the sons of persons in official stations at Washington, although appointed 'at large,' leaving but five for selection from other sources. In several cases the answers were significant—"My father had to bleed freely for my appointment." "My brother worked hard for his election." "I had the promise of a cadetship at West Point, but as there was no vacancy that year, I got an appointment here." "I am an exchange. Senator —— got an appointment for Mr. C.'s nephew, and Mr. C. nominated Senator —— friend's son for the place." —[Ed. of Amer. Journal of Education.]

to the Secretary of War, go into an extended discussion of the advantages and objections to this principle and mode of making appointments. To this document reference is made as embodying the convictions of this Board as to the probable working of the same principle in admissions to the Naval Academy.

III. In connection with a change in the mode of appointment, the Visitors would commend to the consideration of the Department a revision of the conditions as to the age, bodily vigor, and general knowledge of candidates. The old system of training naval officers, by placing boys at the early age of twelve or fourteen years on ship-board in the daily and constant practice of the routine of the ship, when accompanied with the parental oversight of the captain as to conduct, and with regular and progressive instruction in the science and art of his profession, on ship and shore, by the teacher of mathematics and navigation—has produced many capable commanders, out of the larger number who have been ruined for the want of proper supervision and instruction, or grown up into men of mere routine. Some of the brightest names in the records of our own and of the English naval service had no other education or training than this. But these are the exceptions, and their success was as much due to opportunity and original genius, as to their early and continuous ship experience. That system of training officers is, however, everywhere abandoned, and the present aim of every naval power in the world is to seek out young men having a fondness for sea-life, with a generous ambition for naval distinction, with an aptitude for the sciences which qualify and adorn the naval officer, with vigor of body to bear the inevitable exposures of the service, and with a large amount of general knowledge, and then subject them to a special course of professional study and practice in a naval school. For every stage of promotion, additional knowledge as well as professional experience, tested by successive rigid examinations, are required. The experience of this class of schools indicates that those original qualities and acquired qualifications deemed indispensable in candidates for the proper mastery of a thorough course of naval instruction, can not often be found in young men under eighteen years of age.

IV. With an advance in the average age, maturity of mind, and preparatory attainments of the cadets on admission, the Visitors believe a revision and readjustment of the subjects and course of instruction can be advantageously made, which in connection with the new schools of naval construction, and of marine engineering, would greatly extend the range, depth, and practical value of the education of the naval officer, without prolonging the time now

devoted to its acquisition. If the Academy can be relieved of the large amount of merely elementary general education which every graduate of the common schools of the country ought to have received, and which in a few years every aspirant to the privileges of this school would contrive to get, if the law made its acquisition necessary as a preliminary to a competitive examination—then the whole general scientific course could be mastered in two years, with a large amount of military and naval tactics, as well as of practical seamanship in the two summer cruises. At this point the Visitors recommend to the consideration of the Department the establishment of the following departments, or schools, in each of which the course of instruction shall be far more comprehensive and thorough than is now practicable where the branches constitute parts of a single course:—

First.—Of Navigation and Seamanship.

Second.—Of Naval Ordnance and Practical Gunnery.

Third.—Of Hydrography, Marine Surveying, Astronomical Observations, Construction of Charts, &c.

Fourth.—Of Drawing, Naval Designs, Construction of Ships, Naval Machinery, Docks, &c.

Fifth.—Of Steam and Marine Engineering.

Sixth.—Of Naval History and Strategy, International Law—especially of belligerents and neutrals—and the Law of the Sea, Consular Duties, &c.

Seventh.—Of Modern Languages.

Into each of these schools let the cadets be drafted, the choice to be determined by their own predilection or comparative fitness, at the close of the second year, and after completing such number of these courses, not less than four, as may be prescribed, let them have the privilege of an examination.

Each of these departments or schools might be opened to a certain number of candidates, on competitive examination, from each State—no matter where they may have received their education—and permission might be given to officers of any rank to review and extend their knowledge of either of these departments with the more advanced text-books and means of instruction. By this arrangement the service will secure the highest development of any special aptitude, preparation, or experience—and will more frequently get “the right man in the right place.”

The importance of these great departments of the naval service, and of special preparation for them, is fully appreciated by the Academic Board, but any attempt to give this preparation to all the members of the present classes, with such unequal and deficient preparatory

knowledge and with such diverse aptitudes for particular branches, would be futile. The attempt to teach as much as is now done, under the circumstances, only produces confused and unsatisfactory results with a large portion of the class. The remedy for this state of things seems to the Visitors to be in:—

1. More thorough preparation, higher average ability, and greater maturity of mind on the part of the cadets.
2. A thorough scientific course up to a certain point, for all the cadets, to occupy two years.
3. The requiring of linguistic training (in one or more modern languages,) only of those who show some aptitude or previous preparation for the same.
4. An option of two or three of the above courses, and a thorough proficiency in those selected before being permitted to pass as midshipman.
5. And finally continuation of study as well as of practice after graduation in the directions for which there is a demonstrated fitness and ability.

V. The Visitors deem it desirable to concentrate in and around the Naval Academy the largest amount and the highest quality of teaching ability, naval experience, and the apparatus and opportunities of practice of every kind connected with the naval service. But they would also commend to the consideration of the Department the encouragement of Naval Institutes, or temporary courses of instruction, at suitable seasons of the year, in some of the great departments of naval education specified in the foregoing classification—for the benefit of officers on furlough, or connected with the National Dockyards and Depositories, especially those in the neighborhood of large collegiate institutions, on the request of a certain number of such officers. Private naval architects and shipmasters might also be invited to attend these Institutes. Something of this kind should be provided, especially if continued study and examination is required by law and regulation at every stage of promotion in the naval service.

VI. The absence of elementary naval schools and of any regular instruction in navigation, the want of nationality and the low condition of the seaman-class generally, prevents any considerable demonstration or recognition of that nautical taste and aptitude for sea-life in the great mass of the population, which ought to be the basis of all special nautical training. To remedy this state of things, to develop and cultivate, where it exists, a desire for a maritime career, to provide at once a supply of intelligent, hardy, and well-trained seamen, mates, and masters, for the national as

well as for the commercial marine, in time of peace as well as in the emergencies of a sudden or a great war, the Visitors recommend the inauguration, under the auspices of the Naval Department, of a system of navigation schools and naval instruction, in addition to and in connection with our present system of naval apprenticeship, commensurate with the demands of the service, the country, and the age. As the basis of this system, they recommend the immediate offer of pecuniary aid to encourage the establishment of a class of navigation schools in all the large seaports of the country, subject to thorough national inspection in order to secure uniformity and efficiency. They do not deem it necessary to consider here the organization, management, and instruction of this class of schools, farther than to present the outline of a system.

1. The schools which they contemplate, are not to be government schools—although they will be aided and inspected by the Naval Department. Their original establishment, buildings, material, equipment, and immediate management will belong to the local Board of Trade or Commerce representing the shipping and commercial interests of the communities in which they are located. Through such Board, the State or municipal authorities, or individuals, can extend pecuniary aid for the original outfit or annual support.

2. The objects aimed at in the internal constitution of the schools and classes, will be thorough instruction in navigation, seamanship, and kindred branches through:—*First*—Evening classes for adults, (seamen, mates, or masters,) who can not attend regularly on account of absence from port or engagements by day, in which the instruction will necessarily be elementary and fragmentary; *Second*—A junior department or division, in which instruction in arithmetic, drawing, commercial geography, and statistics, will be given, as well as in navigation, the use of instruments, calculation of observations, keeping a log-book, journal, &c; *Third*—A senior department, in which a thorough course of mathematics, navigation, nautical astronomy, steam and steam navigation, &c., will be given, with facilities for acquiring one or more of the languages of the nations with which we have large commercial dealings.

3. The extension of any government aid should be based on the condition that suitable buildings and material equipment are furnished and kept in repair and working order by the local Board, or committee of the same, charged with the immediate management of the school; and such aid shall be subject to reduction and withdrawal for the succeeding year on the recommendation of the Department inspectors. For the first year the only condition should be the actual payment, from other sources, of an equal amount for

the annual expense of the school, subject to the disposal of the local Board. For the second and subsequent years, the sum paid by the government shall be appropriated in portions; *First*—a specific sum to the principal teacher and assistants according to the grade of certificated qualification each may hold; *Second*—a specific sum to the managers of each school for the annual expense of the same, according the average daily or evening attendance of the whole number enrolled in each class or division for a specified period of time in each year; *Third*—a specific sum to the managers of each school according to the number of pupils who shall complete certain specified courses of study to the satisfaction of the inspectors upon examination by them; *Fourth*—a specified sum in prizes, in the form of chronometers, sextants, text-books in navigation, &c., to be competed for by all the pupils of each division of a school; *Fifth*—a specified sum in aid of such professional experience as can be secured for the younger members of the school, as is now given to naval apprentices. All payments by the government should be so made as to secure and reward the services of able and faithful teachers, the regular, punctual, and prolonged attendance of pupils to the completion of each course which they enter, and the liberal co-operation of the local municipal authorities and the commercial and shipping portions of the community in which the school is located. Without such co-operation the whole plan will fail. The school need not be free—but let the instruction be good, practical, and cheap, and its possessor be sure of a lucrative employment, and then there will be a demand for it.

And why should not the national government enter upon this or a better devised system of training its own seamen, and advancing its naval and commercial interests? All maritime nations, either directly and exclusively by the central government, or through local boards of trade and commerce, have aimed to protect the lives and property of citizens engaged in commerce and navigation, by providing not only for the erection of light houses, buoys, and other material safeguards, but also by an adequate supply of competent pilots and mariners, duly trained and commissioned. Our own government has recognized its duty in all these respects, and in the recent enormous expansion and peculiar risks of the steam-marine, has established a system of inspection which is intended to reach every engine used for the propulsion of every vessel of any class in all waters subject to national law. Surely the same policy which permits and justifies this interference of the national arm and the application of the national resources to build light-houses, erect buoys, register the names, tonnage, and ownership of vessels;

which commissions pilots, inspects steam-boilers, surveys harbors, makes observations of the stars, the currents of the ocean and the prevalent directions of the winds in different seasons and latitudes; constructs and circulates maps and charts, and does all these things for the protection of commerce and for the use of the navy, will, in behalf of the same great interests, when satisfied that they are jeopardized by present neglect, see and be assured that the masters, mates, and seamen, who have all the precious lives and enormous properties embarked in commerce in their keeping, are properly trained in the science and art of navigation.

The liberal educational policy of the national government which has set apart over one hundred millions of acres of the national domain for educational purposes, which if the right of inspection into its application had been asserted and exercised, would have amounted ere this time to a permanent fund of over five hundred millions of dollars—and which has more recently appropriated over six hundred thousand acres of public land for the establishment of agricultural and scientific schools;—the similar policy of the State governments, that holds all property subject to taxation for the support of schools, and that authorizes the most munificent appropriations for free public schools in all of the large cities, which are also the great seaports of the country—all justify the belief that a system of education for this large class of the community, once fairly entered upon by the national government, will be cheerfully and liberally responded to and sustained.

In England the same necessity which exists in this country—the reluctance of young people in good circumstances, to enter the maritime service—the low state of the professional as well as general education of her seaman-class—the enormous amount of property and the large number of lives directly interested in commerce and navigation—the reliance for properly manning the national vessels in the sudden emergency of war, on the commercial marine—the representative character which mariners bear, of the religion, manners, and civilization generally of the country, to all nations which they visit—the desire for the elevation of this large class of the population in intelligence, morality, and physical well-being, for its own sake as well as for the happiness, safety, and glory of the whole country—has prompted the government to organize a system of nautical education, not only for officers, gunners, architects, shipwrights, engineers, seamen, and boys employed directly in the national service, but for the masters, mates, sailors, and boys in her large commercial marine. Prior to 1853, the whole reliance of that country for the professional education of masters and mates was their reg-

istration after an examination in the mere mechanical knowledge of navigation and seamanship. To obtain this knowledge, reliance was placed on the economic law of supply and demand, and in this case as in others of an intellectual and moral nature, the least demand was made by those in the greatest want. Only here and there, in the great seaport towns, individuals poorly qualified in most instances, opened schools and classes of navigation, in which instruction of the most elementary and mechanical character was given without system, to a very small number, and without supervision or responsibility. In 1853, after the great International Exhibition had demonstrated the superiority of France and other continental nations, in the scientific as well as artistic training of their industrial classes, the English Government constituted a Department of Art and Science to administer a large appropriation (amounting annually to nearly a half-million of dollars) so as to extend encouragement to local institutions of practical science scattered in all the principal centers of population, and acting in every department of industry, all subject to the visits of government inspectors. To this Department of Science and Art was assigned the extension of pecuniary encouragement to, and the inspection of a class of schools which had been instituted by the Mercantile Marine Department of the (governmental) Board of Trade, in connection with local boards of commerce and trade, for the benefit of the navigation interests of the country. These schools in 1863 had increased to eighteen—each in an important seaport—each under the management of a local committee—each having a fair attendance of boys, seamen, mates, and masters, who all paid small fees. The system is still in its infancy, but continues to enjoy the confidence of the government and of the large commercial houses.

Nor is this system of governmental aid and inspection of marine and navigation schools, confined to England. In all the continental states in which the commerce is large enough to require the aid of government in any form for its protection, as well as for the indirect advantage of the navy, this class of schools exists—and in some the national policy in this respect is most comprehensive and thorough. In France, the government in its gigantic efforts within the last twenty-five years to establish a navy which in the number, design, construction, and armament of its vessels, in the scientific and professional knowledge of the officers, and the practical intelligence of her seaman, should be equal to that of any other nation—has included the whole commercial marine in its operations. Encouragement is given to private shipyards, architects, and foundries; and the system of maritime "inscription" or enrollment is

so thorough that there is not a master nor an engineer in the commercial service who has not served at least two years in the national dockyards, foundries, or ships, and enjoyed opportunities of professional study, as well as practice, of the most scientific character.

VII. To give unity, stability, thoroughness, and general efficiency to the inspection and operations of the large system of naval education contemplated in the foregoing suggestions, the Visitors recommend the appointment of a Council or Board of Naval Education, in the constitution of which the great features of such a system should be represented, viz:—(1.) Experience and success in naval command. (2.) Experience in large commercial and maritime affairs. (3.) Success in naval construction. (4.) Success in the instruction and discipline of educational institutions. (5.) A new infusion every year of the popular element, by the appointment from year to year of one or more public-spirited citizens from different sections of the country to attend the local examinations of applicants for admission, and the annual examinations of the several institutions.

To this Board should be assigned the duty of (1.) Frequent personal inspection and examination at other than stated periods. (2.) The thorough examination by themselves, and in connection with the professors, of the several classes in their daily recitations. (3.) The examination by themselves, or by competent experts, of all candidates for admission, of which as far as practicable, the written answers of the candidates should be preserved, and a written report in detail should be filed away for reference.

The language used in the law under which the present Board of Visitors are appointed—"for the purpose of *witnessing* the examination of the several classes"—if taken literally, would certainly justify the practice adopted by this, and as far as they can learn, by previous Boards. At all events, the constitution of this and previous Boards, composed as it is of members a majority of whom have had no experience in school examinations—who have had no acquaintance with this institution before their present appointment—and who are together for but a short period of time, is very inadequate for any purpose of thorough personal examination. They must be satisfied in the main to receive statements on trust, and to receive and communicate only general impressions. All the duties devolving upon the Board of Visitors as at present organized, could be far more efficiently and successfully performed in connection with the other duties of the Council of Naval Education, here suggested.

VIII. With a programme of studies so extensive as that now laid

down or as herein proposed, in which each study is, or should be arranged with reference to what has gone before, as well as to what is to follow, the professor of each department and the teacher of each branch and section, should be kept closely to his portion, each cadet should master thoroughly every step in the succession, no professor should encroach upon the time of another, no teacher should be allowed to pass his pupils indifferently prepared into the succeeding section or branch. Even if no change be made in the present programme this course is essential to the success of the school, and to secure this an Inspector of Studies should be appointed, who should report frequently to the Academic Board all and every infraction of the programme, so that it may be ascertained whether the cause of failure be in the programme, or the class, or the teacher; and the remedy at once applied. Both the special and general duties of the Commandant preclude the constant and minute inspection referred to, and to the professor of no one department can these duties be properly assigned. While there is a superior executive officer who has in charge the external administration of the affairs of the Academy, there is no corresponding officer, as in the opinion of the Visitors there should be, to preside over the vital matters of instruction and training.

IX. The appointment of professors and assistants is a subject from its importance at all times, and from its immediate bearing upon the welfare of the school, deserving of mature consideration. The efficiency and thoroughness of instruction, the spirit of diligent study and the enthusiastic love of it among the midshipmen, depend to a great degree, upon the fitness of the instructor for his post and the method and manner of teaching which he employs. Though there may be some reason for limiting their appointment to the graduates of the Academy, yet the present course of instruction has by no means in view the training of future teachers, nor has it yet reached its full development. The success and advancement of the institution would seem to require the employment of the best educational talent, and none other, to be obtained wherever it can be found. Whenever any vacancy is to be filled, or new appointments to be made, the Visitors recommend that due notice of the same be given, and that the credentials of all applicants be referred to a competent board, and the applicants themselves whose credentials are satisfactory, be subjected to an open, competitive examination.

X. In conclusion, the Visitors recommend that greater publicity be given to all the documents which set forth the object

and operations of the Naval Academy, the mode and conditions of nominating midshipmen, the name of the person responsible for a nomination, the requisitions and results of each entrance as well as of all annual examinations, with specimens of the questions asked and answers given, so far as the same were written or printed. They would respectfully urge that the Official Register of the Academy, with the above and other information deemed necessary by the Department, be sent not only to every member of Congress, but to the libraries of all principal High Schools, public and private, and all institutions where candidates are prepared, that both teachers and pupils may know what the Department requires as preliminary to the special professional training provided in this Academy for any branch of the naval service of the country, and especially how deplorably deficient a large proportion of the candidates are found to be, on only a moderately strict but impartial examination. To this Register might be appended the official report of the Bureau charged with its supervision, or of any Board of Visitors, or Special Examiners, appointed by the Department.

With the best permanent accommodations and equipment of the Academy that can be made at Annapolis or elsewhere—with schools or courses of scientific and practical instruction for every branch of the service, and for every stage of promotion—with a teaching staff so numerous and so diversified as to secure the advantage of special attainment and qualifications to each branch of study—with entire control of the pupil's time—with hospital accommodations and medical services for the sick—with chaplains for religious observances and the moral culture of all—with regular alternations of physical exercise and intellectual labor, and the stimulus of an honorable distinction before and after graduation—the Visitors think it not unreasonable to expect from an institution so provided for, the highest results, especially as the government has it in its power to select for admission, without regard to the social or political status of parents, from among the entire youth of the country, those who are best fitted by their physical and mental endowment and preliminary education, as well as by their aptitude for special studies and predilection for the naval service, for which those studies are a preparation.

All which is respectfully submitted.

JOHN MARSTON, *Commodore U. S. Navy, President.*

JAMES A. HAMILTON, *New York.*

G. D. A. PARKS, *Illinois.*

JOHN RODGER, *Commodore U. S. Navy.*

C. W. PICKERING, *Capt. U. S. Navy.*

CHARLES D. ROBINSON, *Wisconsin.*

JOHN W. HARRIS, *Missouri.*

HENRY BARNARD, *Connecticut.*

III. COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION AT WEST POINT.

DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE, MAY 18TH, 1854.

THE BILL making appropriation for the Military Academy being under consideration, Senator Anthony, of R. Island, remarked on the following amendment:

And be it further enacted, That hereafter, in all appointments of cadets to the Military Academy at West Point, the selections for such appointments in the several districts shall be made from the candidates according to their respective merits and qualifications, to be determined under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of War shall from time to time prescribe.

This, Mr. President, is substantially the proposition which I offered at the last session; and although I was not so fortunate as to obtain for it the assent of the Senate, mainly from an apprehension of practical difficulties in carrying out what is admitted to be a desirable reform if it could be effected, yet the general expression of Senators was so much in favor of the principle, and I have been so much strengthened in my views on the subject by subsequent reflection and examination, that I am emboldened to renew it.

I differ entirely from those who are fond of disparaging the Military Academy. It has been of incalculable service to the country; it is the origin and the constant supply of that military science without which mere courage would be constantly foiled, and battles would be but Indian fights on a large scale. Not to speak of the Mexican war, throughout the whole of which West Point shone with conspicuous luster, it is safe to leave the vindication of the Academy to the gallant and able men who have illustrated the annals of the war that is now raging. Nor have its indirect advantages been less marked than its direct. It has kept alive a military spirit, and kept up a good standard of military instruction in the volunteer militia. It furnished, from its graduates who have retired from the Army, scores of men who rushed to the head of our new levies, who organized and instructed them, inspired them with confidence, and led them over many a bloody field to many a glorious victory. Large numbers of our best volunteer officers owe their instruction indirectly to West Point.

To say that no course of military instruction can make a pupil a military genius, can create in him that rare quality that takes in at a glance, almost by intuition, the relative strength of great masses opposed to each other, and that power of combination which can bring an inferior force always in greater number upon the severed portions of a superior force, is very true. To discard military education on that account would be like shutting up the schools and colleges because they can not turn out Miltons and Burkes and Websters. Education does not create, it develops and enlarges and inspires and elevates. It will make the perfect flower, the majestic tree, from the little seed; but it must have the seed. And what I desire is that the Academy at West Point should have the best seed; that its great resources, its careful culture, its scientific appliances, should not be wasted on second-rate material. The Academy has never had a fair chance; the country has not had a fair chance; the boys have

the country. I desire that the Academy shall begin, as it goes on, upon the not had a fair chance. This is what I want them all to have, and especially competitive principle. As all its standing, all its honors, are won by competition, so should the original right to compete for them be won. I would give all the youth of the country a fair chance; and, more desirable than that, I would give the country a fair chance for all its youth. I would have the Academy filled up by those young men who, upon examination by competent judges, should be found most likely to render the best service to the country; to make the best officers; whose qualifications, physical, intellectual, and moral, whose tastes and habits, should seem to best fit them for military life.

But, it is objected, no such examination would be infallible. Of course it would not be. No human judgment is infallible. Our deliberations are not infallible; but therefore shall we not deliberate? The decisions of the Supreme Court are not infallible; therefore shall we abolish the court?

A SENATOR. The Senator from New Hampshire would say *yes*.

MR. ANTHONY. I know the Senator from New Hampshire [Mr. HALE] would say "Yes." He would abolish both the Academy and the Court, and I can well suppose that the policy which would abolish the one might abolish the other. But although such an examination would not be infallible, it would, if properly organized and properly conducted, accomplish much toward the reform which all admit to be desirable, if it be practicable. It can not be doubted that the young men who would come out best from such a trial would, as a body, be superior to those who are selected upon mere personal preferences, and these preferences generally not for themselves, but for their parents; not for their own qualifications, but as a recognition of the political services of their fathers.

But, again, it was objected when I made this proposition a year ago that it was not equal; -because, in giving to any given place of examination, some young men would have further to travel than others! If this objection had not been gravely made by men for whom I have the highest respect I should be tempted to call it puerile. A boy asks the privilege of going a hundred miles to the place of examination, and is told that he can not have it because another boy will have to go two hundred miles, and another but fifty, and it is not equal! The fact that either of them would go five hundred miles on foot for the opportunity of competition is not taken into the account. On the same principle our elections are not equal, for one man must travel further than another to reach the polls. For a boy who can not obtain the means to travel from his home to the place of examination—and there will be very few such of those who would be likely to pass high in the examination—the plan proposed would be no worse, certainly, than the present system; for those who have the means the difference in travel is too small an item to enter into the account.

No plan can be made perfectly equal. Shall we therefore refuse to make a large advance toward equality? Certainly the system which invites a competition from all who are in a condition to avail themselves of it is more equal than that which excludes all competition. But although equality in the advantages of the Academy is very desirable, and although the amendment proposed would be a long step in that direction, it is not for that reason that I urge it. It is not to give all the young men an equal chance for the Academy, it is to give the Academy a chance for the best young men; and although even under this system the best young men will often fail of success, it can not be doubted that many more of them will enter the service than under the present system.

Nor will the advantages of this competition be confined to those who reach the prize for which so many will struggle. An incalculable although an incidental benefit will accrue to the thousands whose youthful hearts will be stirred by an honorable ambition, and who will cultivate their minds by liberal studies and develop their physical power by manly exercises in the struggle upon which the humblest may enter, and in which the proudest can obtain only what he fairly earns. Under the present system the Academy wastes full half its strength upon boys who never ought to be admitted, and whose natural incapacity derives but little benefit from the partial training that they receive there. Under the system proposed, the Academy would exert its influence upon thousands of the brightest and most aspiring boys all over the country, stimulating them to the pursuit of such studies and to the formation of such habits as, if they fail to carry them to West Point, will help to conduct them to usefulness and honor in whatever path of life they may choose.

But, again, we are met with the objection that this proposition is impracticable, that it looks very well on paper, but that it can not be carried into effect. Let us see. It is quite safe to conclude that what has been done can be done, and that what wise and judicious people do, and persist in doing after experiment, is proper to be done. What is the most warlike nation of Europe? What nation of Europe has carried military science to the highest degree? What nation of Europe has the greatest genius for organization? You will say the French. Let us see what is their system. I read from the report of the Commission appointed by Congress in 1860 to visit the Military Academy at West Point, and report upon the system of instruction; a commission of which you, Mr. President, [Mr. Poor,] were a member:

Among the European systems of military education that of France is preëminent. The stimulating principle of competition extends throughout the whole system; it exists in the appointment of the student, in his progress through the preliminary schools, in his transfer to the higher schools, in his promotion to the Army, and in his advancement in his subsequent career. The distinguishing features of the French system are thus described by the British commissioners.

"1. The proportion, founded apparently upon principle, which officers educated in military schools are made to bear to those promoted for service from the ranks. 2. The mature age at which military education begins. 3. The system of thorough competition on which it is founded. 4. The extensive State assistance afforded to successful candidates for entrance into military schools whenever their circumstances require it. * * * * *

Admission to the military schools of France can only be gained through a public competitive examination by those who have received the degree of bachelor of science from the lycées or public schools, and from the orphan school of La Flèche.

A powerful influence has thus been exercised upon the character of education in France. The importance of certain studies has been gradually reduced, while those of a scientific character, entering more directly into the pursuits of life, have been constantly elevated.

The two great elementary military schools are the School of St. Cyr and the Polytechnic School. These, as well as the other military schools, are under the charge of the Minister of War, with whom the authorities of the schools are in direct communication. Commissions in the infantry, cavalry, and marines can only be obtained by service in the ranks of the army, or by passing successfully through the School of St. Cyr, admission to which is gained by the competitive examination already referred to."

Again, the Commission say, speaking of the School of St. Cyr:

The admission is by competitive examination, open to all youths, French by birth or by naturalization, who, on the 1st of January preceding their candidature,

were not less than sixteen and not more than twenty years old. To this examination are also admitted soldiers in the ranks between twenty and twenty-five years, who, at the date of its commencement, have been actually in service in their regiments for two years.

A board of examiners passes through France once every year, and examines all who present themselves having the prescribed qualifications.

A list of such candidates as are found eligible for admission to St. Cyr is submitted to the Minister of War. The number of vacancies has already been determined, and the candidates admitted are taken in the order of merit.

Twenty-seven, or sometimes a greater number, are annually, at the close of their second year of study, placed in competition with twenty-five candidates from the second lieutenants belonging to the army, if so many are forthcoming, for admission to the Staff-School at Paris. This advantage is one object which serves as a stimulus to exertion, the permission being given according to rank in the classification by order of merit.

In regard to the Polytechnic School, the Commission say:

Admission to the School is, and has been since its first commencement in 1794, obtained by competition in a general examination, held yearly, and open to all. Every French youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty (or if in the army up to the age of twenty-five) may offer himself as a candidate.

This is the system which was organized by Carnot and adopted and extended by Napoleon. Under this system the French army has attained its perfection of organization, its high discipline, its science, its dash, and its efficiency.

But not the French alone have adopted the competitive system. In England, all whose traditions are aristocratical, where promotion in the army has so long been made by patronage and by purchase, the sturdy common sense of the nation has pushed away the obstructions that have blocked up the avenues to the army, and have opened them to merit, come from what quarter it may. In the commencement of the Crimean war, the English people were shocked at the evident inferiority of their army to the French. Their officers did not know how to take care of their men, or how to fight them. And although in the end British pluck and British persistence vindicated themselves, as they always have and always will, it was not till thousands of lives had been sacrificed that might have been saved under a better system. No French officer would have permitted that memorable charge at Balaklava, which was as remarkable for the stupidity that ordered it as for the valor that executed it, and which has been sung in verses nearly as bad as the generalship which they celebrate. After the war, the English Government, with the practical good sense which usually distinguishes it, came, without difficulty, to the conclusion that merit was better than family in officering the army, and that it was more desirable to put its epaulets upon the shoulder of those who could take care of the men and lead them properly than upon those who could trace their descent to the Conqueror, or whose uncles could return members of Parliament. Accordingly, the Royal Military Academy, which had been filled, as ours is, by patronage, was thrown open to public competition. On this subject I quote from the very interesting and valuable report of the Visitors of the Military Academy in 1863:

The same principle was applied to appointments and promotion in the new regiments called for by the exigencies of the great war in which England found herself engaged.

Subjects, time, and place of examination were officially made known throughout the kingdom, and commissions to conduct the examinations were appointed, composed of men of good common sense, military officers, and eminent practical teachers and educators. The result, as stated in a debate in Parliament five years later, on extending this principle to all public schools, and all appoint-

ments and promotions in every department of the public service, were as follows: in the competitive examinations for admission to the Royal Military Academy candidates from all classes of society appeared—sons of merchants, attorneys, clergymen, mechanics, and noblemen, and among the successful competitors every class was represented. Among the number was the son of a mechanic in the arsenal at Woolwich, and the son of an earl who was at that time a cabinet minister—the graduates of national schools, and the students of Eton, and other great public schools.

On this point Mr. Edward Chadwick, in a report before the National Social Science Association, at Cambridge in 1862, says:

"Out of an average three hundred patronage-appointed cadets at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, for officers of engineers and the artillery, during the five years preceding the adoption of the principle of open competition for admission to the Academy, there were fifty who were, after long and indulgent trial and with a due regard to influential parents and patrons, dismissed for hopeless incapacity for the service of those scientific corps. During the five subsequent years, which have been years of the open-competition principle, there has not been one dismissed for incapacity. Moreover, the general standard of capacity has been advanced. An eminent professor of this university, who has taught as well under the patronage as under the competitive system at that Academy, declares that the quality of mind of the average of the cadets has been improved by the competition, so much so that he considers that the present average quality of the mind of cadets there, though the sorts of attainment are different, has been brought up to the average of the first-class men of this (Cambridge) university, which of itself is a great gain. Another result, the opposite to that which was confidently predicted by the opponents to the principle, has been that the average physical power or bodily strength, instead of being diminished, is advanced beyond the average of their predecessors."

I read this also from the same report:

Another result of immense importance to the educational interests of Great Britain has followed the introduction of these open competitive examinations for appointments to the military and naval schools, to the East India service, as well as to fill vacancies in the principal clerkships in the war, admiralty, ordnance, and home departments of the Government. A stimulus of the most healthy and powerful kind, worth more than millions of pecuniary endowment, has been given to all the great schools of the country, including the universities of England, Scotland, and Ireland. As soon as it was known that candidates, graduates of Trinity College, Dublin, had succeeded over competitors from Oxford and Edinburgh in obtaining valuable appointments in the East India service, the professors in the latter universities began to look to their laurels. As soon as it was known to the master of any important school that some of his leading pupils might compete in these examinations, and that his own reputation as a teacher depended in a measure on the success or failure of these pupils, he had a new motive to impart the most vigorous and thorough training.

Such has been the result in France and in England. We are not without examples at home. The competitive system has been tried in repeated instances here in the appointments both to the Military and the Naval Academy. Several Representatives in Congress, with a conscientious sense of the responsibility resting upon them, have given their patronage to the result of general competition, among them the gentleman who so ably represented, in the last Congress, the district in which I live. The results have been most satisfactory. Here, again, I will quote from the report of the Board of Visitors for 1863:

The principle itself, of selection by merit, either in the mode of public examination or of careful and searching inquiry by competent and impartial educators designated for this purpose by the parties to whom custom, and not law, had assigned the grave responsibility of nominating candidates, has been voluntarily applied in several Congressional districts. Not a cadet known to have been thus selected and appointed has ever broken down from want of vigor of body or mind, or failed to reach and maintain an honorable position on the merit-roll

of the Academy; and to this careful selection by those who felt the responsibility of the privilege accorded to them is the country indebted for its most eminent and useful officers.

The same report makes some observations on another point:

To the objection that selection by public competitive examination will involve expense, we reply that any expense which will do away with the prejudices against the Academy, which the present system of patronage has done so much directly and indirectly to evoke and foster, and which will, at the same time, exclude incompetent and secure the services of vigorous, talented, well-trained officers for every arm of the service, will be well incurred. But in our opinion there will be no more expense in selecting and educating a given number of cadets on this plan than on the present. The two thousand cadets who were appointed by patronage and failed to graduate, cost the Government, directly and indirectly, each year a much larger sum than it would have taken to have excluded them in advance from the institution by competitive examination and filling their places by better men; and their exclusion by substituting better material would have been an incalculable gain to the Academy, facilitating its discipline, increasing the value of its instruction, and giving to the Army a larger number of competent officers.

Even under the despotic government of Austria the competitive system has been adopted for the higher places, and it has been adopted by Prussia and Italy. In Austria every subject can claim admission into the military schools on payment of the cost of his instruction; and all the appointments to the staff are on the competitive system. On this subject I read from the work upon Military Education and Schools, by Hon. Henry Barnard, who stands in the very front rank of the great educators, and who gives to the competitive system the weight of a name which alone should incline us strongly in its favor:

The yearly examinations, the manner in which the marks of the monthly examinations tell on the final one, and the careful classification of the pupils in the order of merit, reminded us of the system of the Polytechnic more than any other school we have seen. * * *

The arrangements for the general staff-school require more remark.

In our report upon Austrian schools we have specially noticed this school as remarkable for its thorough and open competitive character from first to last, and its very sensible plan of study. Admission to it is by competition, open to officers of all arms. The pupils are not unduly overburdened with work; perhaps there is even room for one or two more subjects of importance; but what is done seems to be done thoroughly. The officers are carefully ranked on leaving the school, according as the abilities they have displayed may be considered a criterion of their fitness for employment on the general staff; and in this order they enter the staff corps. The consequence is that every officer knows distinctly, from the time that he first competes for admission until his final examination on leaving, that the order in which he will enter the staff depends entirely on his own exertions and success at the school. It seemed to us that this open competition produced a spirit of confidence and energy in the students as great, if not greater, than any we met with elsewhere.

I quote from the same work in regard to the military education in Sardinia:

Admission into the artillery and engineer school may be considered the reward of the most distinguished pupils of the *Accademia Militare*, who, after spending their last year in that institution in the study of the higher mathematics, chemistry, and architectural drawing, are transferred for the completion of their education to the school of the artillery and engineers.

The staff-school, the formation of which dates from 1850, is chiefly frequented by officers of the infantry and cavalry, who must be below the age of twenty-eight years upon their entrance. It is carried on upon the competitive final examination, the ablest entering the staff corps in that order.

In the same work Mr. Barnard characterizes the Staff-School at Vienna: The most striking features in the system of this school, both at the entrance

and throughout the course, are, that it is distinctly competitive, that it admits very young officers, and that while the work is considerable, the subjects for study are not numerous. In these three points it differs considerably from the Prussian staff-school, in which the students are generally older, and the principle of competition is not so fully carried out. In the Austrian school the students are placed, on entering, in the order which their entrance examination has just fixed. They are examined once a month during their stay. On leaving the school their respective places are again determined, and they have a claim for appointments in the staff corps in the exact order in which they were placed on leaving the school. In Belgium the competitive system is fully adopted.

The following testimony is from a report on the progress of the principle of competitive examination for admission into the public service, read before Section F. Economic Science and Statistics of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Leeds, September 27, 1858, by Edward Chadwick:

Mr. Canon Mosely attests that the "qualifications of the whole" body of competitive candidates appeared to rise above the general "level of the education of the country." It is stated in evidence before the commissioners for inquiring into the means of improving the sanitary condition of the army, that this was most decidedly so of the whole body of competing candidates for medical appointments in the East India service. Mr. Canon Mosely concludes his report on the last year's experience in the following terms: "With reference to the general scope and tendency of competitive examinations, I may perhaps be permitted the observation, that the consciousness which success in such examinations brings with it in early life of a power to act resolutely on a determinate plan, and to achieve a difficult success, contributes more than the consciousness of talent to the formation of a manly and honorable character, and to success on whatever career a man may enter."

The report of the last Board of Visitors at West Point, from which I have read, I believe has not yet been printed by Congress; I have read from a pamphlet copy of it printed in the Journal of Education. The Board was composed, as it usually is, of men of high character and ability. After a full and laborious examination of the whole subject, they unanimously and earnestly recommend the adoption of the competitive system.

If the appointments to fill and maintain the corps at this maximum [four hundred] can be selected out of the many American youths ambitious to serve their country in the Army, on the plan of an open competitive examination in the several States, the Visitors believe that ninety out of every one hundred thus appointed will go through the whole course with honor, and the average ability, scholarship, and good conduct of the whole corps will equal that now reached by the first ten of each class.

With such experience of other nations, with such examples at home, I submit that we may safely in this republican country give our young men the privileges that are conceded in imperial France and in aristocratic England; that we may safely place competition against patronage, and give to modest merit a chance with pretentious imbecility. I would go somewhat further in the competitive system. I would not have the Army or the Navy officered exclusively by the graduates of the national Academies. If any young man, at his own expense, and by his own study and aptitude for the profession, has fitted himself for a command in either, let the competition be open to him equally with those who have been instructed at the public expense, and let the epaulets rest on the shoulders that are most worthy to wear them. But I do not propose to follow the subject to this extent at present. I shall be abundantly content if the Senate will adopt the competitive system, which has worked so well in other countries and so well here as far as it has been tried, in the Military Academy.

OPINIONS OF COL. THAYER AND OTHERS.

On the recommendations of the Board of Visitors as to the conditions of admission to the United States Military Academy at West Point.

EXTRACT from a letter of COL. SYLVANUS THAYER, Superintendent of the United States Military Academy, from 1816 to 1831.

"The Extracts from the Report of the Visitors at West Point, for 1863, I have read with the highest satisfaction, not to say admiration. The subject of the admission of Cadets, their number, age, attainments, and mode of appointment, is discussed in the most complete and able manner, *ne laissant rien a desirer*, as far as I can see. I am naturally the more pleased from finding my own views so perfectly reflected in many important particulars. The only difference I notice is the small addition to my standard of attainment for admission. I not only agree to that, but would raise the standard as high as Congress would be willing to adopt. The higher the standard, the more perfect will be the test of capacity. The subject, as you may well suppose, is not a new one with me. More than forty years ago I made my first effort to have the mode of appointment by nomination, done away with, and admission by open competition adopted. My last effort before the late one, was made in 1858, while I was in command of the Corps of Engineers, during the absence of Gen. Totten. At the same time, I recommended a higher standard of attainment, a Board of Improvement, and some of the other changes comprised in my "Propositions," but with little expectation, however, that my solitary voice would be heeded. After long despairing, I am now encouraged and cheered. Admission by competitive examination, open to all, may not be attained as soon as we wish, but come it must at no distant day. Let every future Board of Visitors recall the attention of the Government to your excellent Report; no new arguments are needed, and let all the publications devoted to the cause of education, agitate the question unceasingly.

We have been favored with the perusal of the "Propositions, referred to in Col. Thayer's letter, and submitted by him to the Secretary of War, in 1863, with "Suggestions for the Improvement of the United States Military Academy." So far as the Visitors go, their views, and those of Col. Thayer, are almost identical, but Col. Thayer's communication to the Secretary includes many other suggestions relating to the instruction, discipline, and administration of the institution, which we hope will be adopted by the Secretary, and embodied in the Regulations.

In addition to the modifications suggested by Col. Thayer, we should like to see the theoretical course at West Point reduced to two years; and Special Courses, or Schools of Application and Practice

established for the Engineer, Artillery, Cavalry, and Infantry service, open only to those who should show natural aptitude, and the proper amount of acquired knowledge, whether graduates of the scientific course of West Point, or any State scientific or classical school, in a competitive examination. In each of these courses or schools, there should be a graduation, and promotion, in the particular service, according to merit. Our whole system of military instruction should terminate in a STAFF SCHOOL, open only to those who, in addition to the knowledge required for graduation in at least two of the above special courses, should have had at least three years actual experience in service. While members of the Staff School, these candidates for the Staff Corps, should, if called for by the State authorities, assist without compensation, in conducting Military Encampments of the Officers of the State Militia, like those held every year in Switzerland, and corresponding to what is known in this country to Teacher's Institutes. The graduates of the Staff School, should constitute the Staff Corps, from which all vacancies in the higher offices of the Regular Army should be filled, and all appointments to new regiments be made.

EXTRACT from a letter of GEN. H. K. OLIVER.

I have read with the utmost care, the Extract from the Report of the Board of Examiners of the Military Academy at West Point, for the year 1863, and most heartily concur in the views therein set forth, and especially in that portion of it, which recommends a competitive examination of candidates for admission. In all its relations it is right. In fact it stands out prominently as the only proper mode of admittance.

My intimate acquaintance with the Academy, having attended the examination in 1846, by invitation, and again in 1847, as Secretary of the Board of Visitors for that year, enables me to speak with reasonable authority. These visits afforded me opportunities, which I improved to the utmost, and most minutely, to become intimately well informed of the effect of the prevailing method of selection, and of its practical results upon character and scholarship after admission, as well as to know, with what degree of fidelity, the institution was answering the intent of its founding, and the just expectation of the country; and I was then satisfied, and subsequent observation has confirmed me in my opinion, that whatever of deficiency prevailed, was traceable to the method of admission. Faithful teachers and faithful teaching will achieve great results, but they can not make good, incompetent natural endowments, nor infuse vigor and life into sluggish natures. I sincerely hope that the Government will feel the force of your views, and comply with your most commendable recommendations.

RESOLUTION adopted by the American Institute of Instruction at the Annual Meeting in August, 1863.

WHEREAS, the security and honor of the whole country require in the military and naval service the right sort of men with the right sort of knowledge and training; and whereas, the military and naval schools established to impart this knowledge and training will fail in their objects, unless young men are selected as students, of the right age, with suitable preparatory knowledge, with vigor of body, and aptitude of mind, for the special studies of such schools; and whereas, the mode of determining the qualifications and selecting the students, may be made to test the thoroughness of the elementary education given in the several States, therefor

Resolved, That the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction are authorized and instructed to memorialize the Congress of the United States, to revise the terms and mode of admission to the National Military and Naval Schools, so as to invite young men of the right spirit, and with vigor and aptitude of mind for mathematical and military studies, who aspire to serve their country in the military and naval service, to compete in open trial before intelligent and impartial examiners in each State, without fear or favor, without reference to the wealth, or poverty, or occupation, or political opinions of their parents or guardians, for such admission, and that in all cases the order of admission shall be according to the personal merits and fitness of the candidate."

EXTRACT from letter of Prof. Monroe, St. John's College, Fordham, N. Y.

I rejoice that some one has taken hold of this subject at last. It needs only to be understood to be adopted; for I can not see from what quarter any opposition to it can arise. You rightly observe that "all the educational institutions of the several States" are interested in this mode of appointment. Great Britain, France, and many of the Continental States admit to their military schools the most competent young men who present themselves, and the method is found to be as economical as it is equitable. Long years of *winnowing* is saved to the Government; for the subjects who present themselves are, of course, the most capable. For several years I was a witness of the beneficial effects produced on youth in France by the stimulation of their energies in order to undergo an examination for admission into the military or naval schools. Our present mode of appointment appears to be an anomaly; for while monarchies find it expedient to adopt a less exclusive mode of sustaining their military organizations, we still cling to one founded on patronage and prerogative. Many of our young men in different colleges and educational institutions have a taste and vocation to the military profession, and have an equal right to compete for a place in the only fields where such a taste can be gratified—viz., in the army and navy. These careers should then be open to them. There is danger and want of policy in suppressing the legitimate aspirations of young men in a nation which is, say what we can, passionately fond of military glory.

EXTRACT from the Report of the Board of Visitors of the U. S. Military Academy at West Point for 1864.

The main features of the Report of the Visitors for 1863 we most cordially approve, especially its recommendations of competitive examination, and raising the age and qualifications of candidates for admission. The only student who obtained his appointment through competitive examination (introduced into his district by the member of Congress upon whose recommendation he was appointed from the common schools* of New York) graduated at the head of his class this year.

* The successful candidate, out of twenty competitors, was a member of the Free Academy of the city of New York, and stood in scholarship about the middle of his class.

IV. LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CONVENTION

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY OF SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND ARTS.

AFTER the establishment of the University of the city of New York, and before a plan for its organization had been definitely determined upon, the friends of the institution authorized a committee, composed of Rev. Dr. J. M. MATTHEWS, Rev. Dr. J. M. WAINWRIGHT, Hon. ALBERT GALLATIN and JOHN DELAFIELD, Esq., members of the Council of the University, to call in its behalf a convention of literary and scientific gentlemen for conference on the general interests of letters and liberal education.

The convention was called accordingly, and met, on the 20th of October, 1830, in the Common Council Chamber of the city of New York. It was quite numerously attended, and included many that were then or have since become prominent among the literary men of the country. Pres. JOSHUA BATES, of Middlebury College, Vt., was called to the chair, the Hon. ALBERT GALLATIN and WALTER BOWNE, Mayor of the city, were appointed Vice-Presidents, JOHN DELAFIELD was appointed Secretary, and Rev. W. C. WOODBRIDGE, of Hartford, Assistant Secretary. The Rev. Dr. J. M. MATTHEWS, afterwards Chancellor of the University, stated the object of the meeting to be to obtain the assistance of those present in devising and maturing a system of college government and instruction adapted to the state and wants of the country and that should enable the University of the city of New York to maintain an honorable competition with the universities of Europe. The sessions of the convention, which were continued through four days, were occupied with addresses and discussions upon topics intimately connected with this object, and the published *Journal of its proceedings** gives a full report of the views of the following gentlemen as there expressed.

Mr. GEORGE BANCROFT, of Northampton, Mass., upon "A Plan for the University of New York."

Pres. J. BATES, upon "The Appointment of Professors."

Dr. COOLEY, upon "The Universities of Cambridge, Oxford and Dublin."

Mr. H. E. DWIGHT, of New Haven, upon "The Education of Classical Teachers."

* *Journal and Proceedings, &c., New York, 1830.*

HON. ALBERT GALLATIN, upon "A Plan for the University, with an Account of the College of Geneva."

Rev. T. H. GALLAUDET, of Hartford, upon "Advancement and Classification of Students," and upon "The possibility of a Liberal Education without the Study of the Classics."

Mr. F. HASLER, of New York, upon "College and University Discipline."

Prof. KRATING, of Philadelphia, upon "The Appointment of Professors," and upon "The Advancement and Classification of Students."

Dr. FRANCIS LIEBER, of Boston, upon "The Organization, Courses of Study, and Discipline of the German Universities," upon "The Advancement and Classification of Students," upon "College Degrees," and upon "The possibility of a Liberal Education without the Study of the Classics."

Lieut. D. H. MAHAN, of West Point, upon "The Defects of the present System of Education."

Lieut. O. M. MITCHELL, of West Point, upon "The Plan of the Associate Society of West Point."

Prof. G. A. PERDIGAN, of Washington College, Hartford, Ct., upon "The Teaching and Pronunciation of the Greek Language."

Prof. J. A. PIZARRO, St. Mary's College, Balt., upon "The History of Education in Spain."

Prof. E. ROBINSON, of Andover, Mass., Report upon "The Study and Pronunciation of the Greek Language."

Prof. B. SILLIMAN, of Yale College, upon "The Organization of Yale College," upon "Sectional Feeling in that Institution," and upon "College Discipline."

Mr. JARED SPARKS, of Boston, upon "The Organization of Harvard College."

Prof. H. VETRAKE, of Princeton, N. J., upon "The existing Method of Collegiate Education in the United States."

Rev. J. M. WAINWRIGHT, of New York, upon "College Discipline."

Dr. J. L. WOLF, of Hamburg, upon "The Organization of a University."

Rev. W. C. WOODBRIDGE, of Hartford, upon "The Gradation of Students by Age and Advancement," upon "Fellenberg and his System of Classification," and upon "Parental Discipline in Colleges."

Mr. T. D. WOOLSEY, of New York, upon "The Colleges of France."

Papers were read upon "The proper mode of conducting instruction in Universities," and upon a "Plan of a University to be adapted to the wants of the poorer classes," and an address was delivered by Col. S. L. Knapp, of Boston, upon the establishment of a "National University."

Remarks were also made upon "The Classification of Students," "Class Emulation," and the question of "Open Classes," by Mr. F. Hasler, Col. S. L. Knapp, Pres. James Marsh, of Vermont University, Mr. J. Sparks, Rev. Walter Colton, of Brooklyn, Prof. Adrian, of the University of Penn., Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, Pres. J. P. Cushing, of Hampden Sydney College, Va., and Pres. Bates—upon "Discipline in Colleges," by Mr. F. Hasler, Rev. Dr. Andrew Yates, of Chittenango, N. Y., Rev. Mr. Woodbridge, Pres. Bates, Prof. Adrian, Prof. Dewey, of Pittsfield, Mass., Prof. Silliman, Pres.

Marsh, Rev. Dr. Emory, of New York, Mr. J. Sparks, Rev. Dr. B. H. Rice, of Virginia, and Prof. Patton, of Princeton, N. J.—upon "The importance of the Study of the Classics in a Liberal Education," by Pres. Marsh, Prof. Patton, and Pres. R. S. Mason, of Geneva College, N. Y.—upon "The relative value of diplomas in this country and Europe," by Mr. Jared Sparks—and in relation to the "Greek Language," by Mr. T. D. Woolsey.

The subject of the establishment of a "National Literary and Scientific Society" was also introduced and referred to a committee composed of the Hon. E. P. Livingston, Hon. A. Gallatin, Prof. Silliman, Dr. J. M. Matthews, and Dr. S. H. Cox, who reported favorably and recommended the appointment of a committee of seven to prepare and report a plan accordingly. Dr. J. M. Matthews, Hon. A. Gallatin, Mr. J. Sparks, Dr. F. Lieber, Pres. Marsh, Mr. H. E. Dwight and Mr. J. Delafield were appointed such committee. Committees were also appointed to report upon "University and College Discipline," "Professorships of Legislation and Jurisprudence," and other educational topics, and arrangements were made for holding another convention in New York, in 1831.

The **SECOND MEETING** of the convention was opened Nov. 1, 1831, in the City Hall at New York. The Hon. J. Q. ADAMS was chosen President, the Hon. A. Gallatin and Hon. E. P. Livingston, Vice-Presidents, J. Delafield, Esq., Secretary, and Prof. B. F. Joslin, of Union College, Assistant Secretary.

The report of the committee upon the formation of a "National Society" gave rise to a discussion upon the limitation of the number of its members, upon its title, &c.,* and after the adoption of the following constitution, it was decided to originate the Society by the appointment of a committee of fifteen, who should have power to elect eighty-five other persons, and that these, or so many of them as should assemble at the call of the committee, should constitute the first meeting of the Society.

I. The Society shall be denominated The National Society of Science, Literature and Arts.

II. The number of members residing within the United States shall not exceed two hundred; and the number of foreign members shall not exceed twenty in other parts of America, and twenty in other foreign countries.

III. The members shall be divided into four classes according to the following

* A plan was submitted by Lieut. R. Park, of West Point, in behalf of the *American Association for the Promotion of Science, Literature, and the Arts*, which was deemed too extensive and of too questionable practicability to be adopted. This Association had been but recently formed, and embraced at that time nine, or more, "Associate Societies," of which the earliest had been formed at West Point in May, 1829. Others were located at Schenectady, Utica, Rochester, New York city, Oxford, O., Nashville and Gallatin, Tenn., and Jewett City, Conn. Their existence was brief.

arrangement, viz.:—First, the Mathematical and Physical Sciences—Second, the Moral and Intellectual Sciences—Third, Literature—Fourth, the Fine Arts.

IV. The funds shall be raised by donations, subscriptions, and such assessments as the Society shall, from time to time, agree upon.

V. The officers of the Society shall be a President, four Vice-Presidents, one from each of the four classes, a Treasurer, a Recording Secretary, and an Assistant Recording Secretary, and two Corresponding Secretaries, one for domestic and the other for foreign correspondence.

VI. The Society shall be governed by such regulations and by-laws as may be agreed upon by a majority of its members, at any annual meeting.

VII. The Constitution may be altered at any annual meeting of the Society, by a majority of two-thirds of the members present; provided, however, that no alteration shall be made in the Constitution, unless such alteration shall have been proposed at the preceding annual meeting.

The following were appointed the committee of fifteen:—Hon. J. Q. ADAMS, Rev. Dr. W. FISK, Prof. H. VETHAKE, Rev. Dr. MACAULEY, Prof. A. ALEXANDER, Mr. H. E. DWIGHT, Prof. B. F. JOSLIN, Hon. E. P. LIVINGSTON, Hon. Chancellor WALWORTH, Hon. ALBERT GALLATIN, Rev. Dr. WAINWRIGHT, Rev. Dr. MATTHEWS, JOHN DELAFIELD, Esq., Rev. Dr. J. MILNOR and Mr. HALSEY.

Mr. H. E. DWIGHT reported upon the subject of the establishment of colleges in Greece under American patronage, introduced by a letter from Rev. J. KING on a proposed institution at Athens.

Rev. W. C. WOODBRIDGE read a report upon the propriety of studying the Bible as a classic; a committee was appointed to prepare a plan for a course of Biblical instruction in academies and colleges, composed of Rev. Dr. MILNOR, Rev. Dr. A. MACLAY, Prof. VETHAKE, Rev. W. C. WOODBRIDGE and Prof. T. D. WOOLSEY.

Dr. F. LIEBER also reported upon "Professorships of History."

Pres. FISK, Prof. VETHAKE and Prof. WOOLSEY were appointed to correspond upon the subject of Greek pronunciation.

Mr. LLERAS, of Colombia, read a communication upon the state of education in that republic and in Venezuela, and Dr. S. H. COX, Mr. THEODORE DWIGHT, Jr., and Prof. WOOLSEY were appointed to open a correspondence with the States of South America.

An essay was also read upon "Jacotot's System of Instruction."

The appointment of the next annual meeting of the convention was referred to a committee of arrangements, and the convention thereupon adjourned.

Thus was initiated the "National Society of Science, Literature and Arts," and here for some reasons unexplained, the movement seems to have ended. Years went by and it was left for other men, in other times, to establish more successfully the national institutions of science and art which now exist. The proceedings of the second convention are briefly given in the "Annals of Education" for 1831, but no record has been met with of any subsequent action.

and learned—now and long past, I have been unable to find any record of the name of the author of the first book on navigation, and the date of its publication. The first book on navigation, however, was published in 1549, and the author of it was a man named John Napier, who was a mathematician and a divine, and he wrote it for the use of the sailors of the English navy.

V. NAVAL AND NAVIGATION SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND.

(Continued from December number for 1864, page 640.)

III. NAVIGATION SCHOOLS.

THE class of schools of which we commenced a description in our last number, which for the sake of presenting the subject entire, we repeat in this, is intended primarily for the special scientific and practical instruction in navigation and seamanship of masters and mates in the merchant service, but is calculated indirectly and largely to increase the efficiency and safety of the military marine in the time of war. For both purposes the English government is engaged in directing and aiding a system of instruction, which in its organization, management and methods is well worthy of the study of our naval authorities, and of the navigation interests of the mercantile community.

In 1853 the English Government constituted the Department of Science and Art, to extend a system of encouragement to local institutions of Practical Science, similar to that commenced a few years before in the Department of Practical Art, the two Departments being united in the course of the same year, and the united Department being administered at first by the Board of Trade, and in 1856, by the Education Department. To this Department of Science and Art, was assigned in 1853 the general management of a class of schools which had been instituted or aided by the Merchant Marine Department of the Board of Trade, for the benefit of the navigation interests of the country. Instruction in navigation was given in the seaports by private teachers, without system, and to a very small number of those who should be well grounded in the principles of the art before being entrusted with the responsibilities of command, involving the lives and property of others. To introduce system, to give permanent employment to a larger number of well-qualified teachers of navigation, to elevate and improve the attainments and character of British masters, mates and seamen, and indirectly but largely increase the supply for the Royal Navy in time of war, the Government had determined to encourage local effort in establishing Nautical Schools. With this view the Marine Department of the Board of Trade had established two schools prior to 1853, one in London, and the other in Liverpool; and an arrangement had been made with the Admiralty, by which it was believed five or six pupil-teachers, who had completed their term of instruction at the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, would be able to attend the scientific courses in the Metropolitan Schools of Science and Art, and be instructed in those sciences which would better fit them to become masters of schools of navigation in the

seaport towns. In 1854, the Trinity House* of Hull reorganized its old school of navigation, after the plan of the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, with two divisions, the lower for a class of boys who need elementary instruction, and the upper, for boys in the technical studies of a seafaring life. With the latter was opened an evening school for adult seamen. Similar schools, with a junior or lower division to revise and complete the general and preparatory studies, and a senior or upper school for special scientific and practical instruction in navigation and seamanship, were established at Yarmouth, Leith, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Dublin, Waterford, and other ports, fifteen in all up to 1862, giving instruction to over 8,000 persons, and all of them enlisting local co-operation and individual payment with governmental aid. As an example of this class of schools we cite a brief description of one of the earliest established, from a Report of the Inspector, Edward Hughes, one of the masters of the Greenwich Hospital Schools.

London Navigation School.

The London Navigation School is held on the upper floor of the Sailors' Home Institution, situated in Well Street, London Dock, and consists of two separate apartments, occupied by the Upper and Lower sections.

The upper section is for the instruction of masters and mates of the merchant service in the following subjects, viz.:

Sextant Observing. Chart Drawing. Geometry. Algebra. Trigonometry. The Sailings. Use of the Nautical Almanac and Mathematical Tables. Principle and Construction of Chronometers. Methods of determining the Latitude and Longitude. Nautical Surveying. Compasses and Magnetism of Ships. Theory of Winds, Tides, and Currents. Methods of taking and recording Meteorological Observations. Principle and Construction of the Steam Engine as applied to the Paddle Wheel and Screw Propeller.

The Lower section is for the education of seamen and apprentices. The course embraces the following subjects:—

Reading. Writing. Dictation and Letter Writing. Arithmetic. Geography. The Sailings. Sextant Observing. Method of Keeping Ships' Books.

The hours of attendance are from 9 to 12 a. m., 2 to 4 p. m., and 6 to 9 p. m. on the first five days of the working week, and from 9 to 12 a. m. on Saturdays.

The fees are six shillings per week for masters and mates, sixpence for seamen, and apprentices are admitted free.

The instruction of both sections is conducted by teachers who have been educated and trained in the Greenwich Hospital Schools, and who hold certificates of competency for teaching Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, from Mr. Riddle, the Head Master of the Nautical School.

As regards the students who at present attend the school, it is manifest that the masters and mates taught in the senior section come for the express purpose of learning to solve certain problems in Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, required for passing the examination of the Local Marine Board, and they are unwilling to devote any portion of their time to the other subjects that enter into the course of instruction. These, though essential to the education of every master mariner, are unfortunately not at present required of a candidate to pass an examination which proclaims him competent to take command of a vessel.

The lower section is composed of seamen and apprentices, who are for the most part employed during the day at their ships in the docks, and have acquired

* The Trinity Board of Hull was established in 1537, in imitation of Trinity House, London, incorporated by Henry VIII. in 1515. (but existing long before.) for the promotion of commerce and navigation, licensing pilots, erecting beacons and lighthouses, &c. Both were probably in imitation of Charles V. who established at Seville, in Spain, at the *Casa de Contratacion*, lectures on navigation, and an examination of persons to act as pilots and mariners.

the rudiments of an English education before entering the school. They attend during their short stay in port from 6 to 9 in the evenings, and their chief object seems to be to acquire a knowledge of the sailings and the methods of keeping the books of a ship.

Both sections are taught the use of nautical instruments, and for this important purpose the Board of Trade has granted a liberal supply of requisites to carry out an efficient system of instruction, as will be seen by the list appended to this Report.

Those students who are sufficiently educated are accustomed to work out their own observations. None of them have been allowed to leave the school without receiving as great an amount as was possible of general information, in addition to the special instruction in the subjects for which they attended. Lectures have been delivered in the evenings upon the Steam Engine, Electricity, and Magnetism, with other branches of Natural Philosophy; and the Physical Geography of the Ocean has received particular attention.

The following statistics are given in the Report of Capt. Ryder, of the Royal Navy, in 1858.

The officers of the committee of management are:—

Chairman, Admiral Sir H. Hope.

Secretary, Captain George Pierce, R. N.

Head-Master, John Bowing, 1 certificate.

The total number receiving instruction in navigation in or through the agency of the school during 1858 has been 149, showing a total increase of 25 since last year. The total fees have been 46*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*

The entire number of adults and boys who have at any time paid fees during the year are, masters, 3; chief mates, 17; only mates, 2; second mates, 37; seamen, 62; apprentices, 28; total number of students, 149.

The following is the rate of fees paid by adults and boys per week:—In the day classes—Masters studying for extra certificates, 6*s.*; chief mates studying for master, 6*s.*; only mates studying for chief mates, 6*s.*; second mates studying for chief mates, 6*s.*; seamen studying for only mates, 6*s.*; for second mates, 6*s.*; apprentices studying navigation, 6*s.*; those not studying navigation, 1*s.*; seamen not studying navigation, 1*s.*; boys learning navigation, 6*d.*; boys not learning navigation, 6*d.* In the evening classes—Adults learning navigation, 3*s.*; not learning navigation, 1*s.*; boys learning navigation, 3*s.*; not learning navigation, 6*d.*

The average attendance at the classes has been:—

Day classes, morning, 7; afternoon, 6.

Evening classes, 6.

Grand total of fees, 46*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.*

The amount of aid afforded to the school by the Department has been 43*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.*, which sum includes the payments for the master's certificate and other allowances, the payments to pupil-teacher, the cost of medals, &c.

School Ships.

There is another class of nautical schools for destitute and endangered boys, which are aided by the government through the Ragged School Society, and are kept on board of ships, the practical seamanship of which might advantageously be incorporated into the navigation schools. The expense of these ships per day is thus given by Capt. Ryder, in his Report on Navigation Schools in 1858.

I have collected some statistics showing the expense of school ships. The Akbar, a frigate at Liverpool, is a reformatory, and has about 100 boys. The Venus, also a frigate, is in charge of the Marine Society, and anchored near Woolwich; she is a school ship for destitute lads, and has about 140 boys. In the Akbar, supported partly by local contributions and partly by the Government grant of one shilling a day for each boy, the expense of the establishment is probably reduced to as low a scale as possible. The Marine Society is a

corporation which can afford to be more liberal in its arrangements. The Akbar was fitted out at an expense of 1,800*l.* but about 1,000*l.* is considered to be sufficient for a fit out, if the hull is in good repair. The Marine Society's ships are always fitted out by the Admiralty without charge. The Akbar costs about 250*l.* a year for repairs, &c.

Estimate of Annual Expense per Boy, deduced from Report.

	Akbar.	Venus.
	£ s.	£ s.
Food,	£10 0	£13 10
Clothes,	4 0	6 0
Management, &c.	10 0	10 10
	24 0	30 0

Outline of Aims and Management of Navigation Schools.

In 1858, Captain Alfred P. Ryder, of the Royal Navy, was appointed to inspect the Navigation Schools connected with the Department of Science and Art, and report on their condition and future management. The statements and suggestions of this report harmonize so fully with the conclusions which we have reached respecting the need and mode of establishing and managing this class of schools in our own country, that we can not better express our own views than by making liberal extracts.

The Government is very anxious to raise the tone of the Commercial Marine for the following reasons:—

(a.) Because the Commercial Marine supplies even in time of peace a considerable number of men to the Royal Navy, and because in time of war we should have to rely upon it almost entirely to enable us to man our ships when our reserves were exhausted, which would soon be the case in a naval war.

(b.) Because on the efficiency of our commercial marine depends to a great extent our position as a commercial country, and on our position as the greatest commercial country rests our supremacy among European nations.

(c.) Because to the commercial marine is entrusted every year an immense amount of valuable property. Want of skill, intelligence, and readiness of resource largely increases the yearly loss of this property.

(d.) Because to the commercial marine every year are entrusted the lives of a large and increasing number of Her Majesty's subjects. Want of skill, intelligence, and readiness of resource largely increase the yearly loss of life at sea.

(e.) Because the commercial marine consists of more than 200,000 persons, and is, therefore, an important portion of the nation, considering it numerically.

(f.) Because the commercial marine represents England, its religion, laws, customs, and habits, in every foreign country, and it is desirable that our representatives should cease to exhibit (as is now frequently the case,) the worst side of the national character. Large numbers of the sailors in our commercial marine are at present neither good men nor good sailors, but are disorderly, addicted to drink, inefficient at sea and all but useless in harbor. Many of them who reach the rank of mate and master compare disadvantageously in general knowledge with the mates and masters of foreign vessels. There are of course numerous brilliant exceptions. They are to be found chiefly in the service of the large ship-owners. In knowledge of seamanship English masters and mates need not fear a comparison with those of any other nation.

The Government, anxious to raise the tone of the Commercial Marine, has endeavored to purify the stream at its source, by the creation or support of Navigation Schools, in order that as soon as possible, by the introduction of well educated lads, its character may be elevated and improved. The Navigation Schools referred to are supported by fees, by local subscriptions, and by aid from the Department of Science and Art. Their object is to offer instruction in

the scientific branches of an Education specially adapted to the Nautical Profession.

In commencing an investigation into the present position and prospects of the Navigation schools, it is evidently advisable to ascertain the number of vacancies that occur annually in the commercial marine; these vacancies are occasioned by death, desertion, and change of profession. It is much to be desired that these vacancies should all be filled by well educated English, Scotch, and Irish lads, for in time of war we could only recruit from the Commercial Marine those sailors who are British subjects.*

Capt. Ryder estimates the number of lads required to supply the annual vacancies by death in the British Commercial Marine at over 5,000, and by desertion and change of profession, by at least 1,000 more, or a total of over 6,000; and that schools for seamen and officers should be sufficient to give an annual supply of at least that number, and so accommodate 18,000 students. According to the Report of the Registrar General of Seamen, there were bound and registered at the several ports of the United Kingdom, in the year 1856, 7,410 apprentices. The 176,387 men (not including masters,) employed in the Home and Foreign Trade, were classified as follows: 21,204 mates, 13,232 petty officers, 83,682 seamen, 28,974 apprentices and boys, 12,640 other persons, 1,612 engineers, 4,896 firemen. Of this number 14,375 were foreigners, and 7,712 lascars. During the year 1856, examinations were passed for extra masters, 22; for ordinary masters, 1,223; for first mates, 689; for only mates, 12,223; for second mates, 940—a total of 4,097. Capt. Ryder calculates that the total number required every year to fill up the vacancies and meet the demands of an expanding commerce as follows:

Of those who leave the service,	6,690
Of those who are drowned,	1,300
Of those who die of disease,	2,660
The average annual increase by expansion of commerce,	3,365

Total supply required, 14,015

Capt. Ryder remarks that the system of nautical education should be broad enough and attractive enough to bring in all the boys of all classes who wish to go to sea, or may be required to meet the demands of the national and commercial marine. The education given should make athletic, intelligent, handy seamen, and impart such an amount of scientific knowledge of navigation and seamanship as will qualify a due proportion for a lower grade of officers.

The first point to be aimed at would apparently be the establishment of an adequate number of schools, so as to offer scientific instruction on the lowest terms to a sufficient number of boys, to supply the demand for educated young men to fill the vacancies in the ranks of masters and mates. Their knowledge of seamanship must of course be gained before the mast.

A commercial navy, fed by a supply of lads that had for three years attended

* According to the Registrar General's Report for 1858, there were 13,200 Foreigners serving in the Mercantile Marine in 1854, natives of the following countries:—Americans, (U. S.) 3,358; Austrians, 532; Belgians, 198; Danes, 428; Germans, 319; Greeks, 76; Hollanders, 1,461; Italians, 110; Norwegians, 570; Portuguese, 564; Russians, 44; Prussians, 553; Spaniards, 388; Swedes, 1,512; French, 479; Various, viz., South Americans, Chinese, &c., &c., 2,499; total, 13,200.

the classes at a Navigation school would challenge comparison for general knowledge and information with any profession in England, and would soon cease to be the last resort of those idle, troublesome fellows, expelled from the agricultural class and the various trades, who are too old, too ignorant, or too profligate ever to make even indifferent sailors.

Having stated what appears to me to be the ground that may be beneficially covered by a network of navigation schools, I will proceed to state what, in my opinion, are the means by which a Navigation School may be rendered most attractive and efficient.

I. A Navigation School assisted by the Government should offer sound Instruction especially adapted to the Nautical Profession.

Although at first sight the number of subjects named hereafter may appear large, and the education of too high an order, these objections will vanish when it is remembered that lads are not acceptable on board merchant ships until they are 15-16, because they are of little use, and give trouble; and yet, as has been already stated, if not attracted to the Navigation schools at the age of 12-13, and induced to remain in attendance on the classes until they are 15-16, they will be drawn into some other profession.

The course of instruction which is adopted must necessarily therefore be sufficiently comprehensive to extend over *three* years, and at the same time continue to the last to be specially adapted to conduce towards the boy's success in his profession.

The subjects which appear to be suitable for boys destined for the nautical profession and retained under instruction from 12-13 to 15-16 are as follows:—

- * (1.) Reading and writing from dictation.
- * (2.) First four rules of arithmetic.
- * (3.) Grammar.
- (4.) A complete course of arithmetic.
- (5.) Algebra to quadratics, with application.
- (6.) Geometry, Books of Euclid, I. II. III., and a few propositions in Book IV.
- (7.) Trigonometry, plane and spherical.
- (8.) Navigation.
- (9.) Nautical astronomy, including lunar double alt. and Sumner's method.
- (10.) Practical use of the instruments used at sea.
- (11.) Geography, descriptive, } especially as regards products, climates, &c.
- (12.) Geography, physical, }
- (13.) Chart drawing; surveying.
- (14.) Free-hand drawing.
- * (15.) History, particularly Scripture History and English History.
- * (16.) Letter writing; book-keeping.
- (17.) Mechanics and steam-engine.
- (18.) Magnetism and electricity in relation to ships.
- (19.) Laws of storms and tides.
- (20.) Knowledge of the code of signals.
- (21.) Mercantile laws and usages, as far as is necessary for the master of a merchant ship.
- (22.) Gymnastics.

The above subjects are taught in the Navigation School at Hull.

II. A Navigation School should provide a good supply of apparatus, viz., instruments, books, maps, slates, &c. without any charge to the pupils.

In Ireland, where a class of Navigation Schools has been established as part of the system of National Education, a very liberal supply of sextants, books, maps, &c., is given to each school by the Board of Education.

III. A Navigation School aided by Government should offer valuable prizes in the shape of exhibitions, instruments, books, &c.

The great difficulty we have to contend with is the reluctance on the part of some parents, the inability on the part of others, to maintain their children during the three years' course.

* The boys are expected to be proficient in these subjects before entry, and they need only be taken up in the way of review.

Exhibitions and prize-schemes should therefore be established on the most liberal footing.

Prizes had been awarded by the Department in only two or three instances before my tour of visits.

(a.) I beg to suggest that *prizes* be awarded, when deserved, at all the schools every half year.

The prizes to consist of sextants, watches, instruments, books, &c. The future prizes to be placed at the commencement of the half-year under the charge of the local committee, to be exposed in the schoolroom in a case with a glass lid or cover. (The half-yearly value of the prizes to be about 15*l.*); the prizes to be fairly and openly competed for.

A very limited number of sextants should be given away, not more than one each half-year among all the schools. The prizes not to be awarded except on the most satisfactory proof of the lad's sufficient proficiency.

(b.) I beg to suggest that *exhibitions* be established on the following scale, viz., at the rate of twelve for a school giving instruction to 100 boys, or one to every eight boys, and be awarded at all the schools every half-year.

The boys after the examination to be divided in the following manner:—

The First Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for a period under 6 months.

The Second Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 6, and under 12 months.

The Third Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 12, and under 18 months.

The Fourth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 18, and under 24 months.

The Fifth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 24, and under 30 months.

The Sixth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 30, and under 36 months.

Exhibitions at the rate of one in eight boys to be given to the most successful boys in each group.

The exhibitions for the 1st and 2nd Divisions to consist of remission of fee and a donation of 6*d.* a week for ensuing half-year.

The exhibitions for the 3rd and 4th Divisions to consist of remission of fee, and a donation of 1*s.* a week for ensuing half-year.

The exhibitions for the 5th and 6th Divisions to consist of remission of fee, and a donation of 2*s.* a week for ensuing half-year.

This part of my proposal is elastic, the value of the exhibitions can be increased if the principle is approved of, and the number may be extended even to offering an exhibition to every boy attaining a certain degree of proficiency in the studies of the school.

The chief merits of this plan are (1.) that as all the exhibitions are thrown open for competition every half-year, the spirit of emulation is constantly kept alive; it is notorious that the attainment of an exhibition or scholarship which will be held throughout a student's career is often the prelude to idleness. (2.) That exhibitions are placed within the reach of the youngest boys.

The examination to decide on the exhibitions and prizes should take place at the end of the half-year. The questions to be sent from the Department, and the answers to be sealed up in the presence of the boys, and sent to the Department on the evening of the examination day. The prizes and exhibitions should be awarded at the commencement of the next half-year. As the examination should not, if possible, extend over more than one day, the Department might make a selection from among the subjects taught. As the inspector can not be present, one or more of the local committee should remain in the school during each examination.

The result of each examination should be allowed to be published in the local papers; competition will then be created among the various schools at the seaport, who will view with great interest the position of their boys on the examination list.

Capt. Ryder suggests (1.) that each boy who holds an exhibition or

gains prizes, have the fact engrossed on a *vellum certificate*, and receive a *medal or badge*. (2.) That all graduates of the school who bring a good character from their captain or shipowner, for one year after leaving the school, receive one pound from the funds of the school. (3.) That ship-owners and the Admiralty be induced to look first to the Navigation schools for their apprentices, and that they open to competition among the prize boys of the schools, any choice places in their gift. (4.) That officers and masters of ships, and public men interested in nautical matters be invited to visit the schools.

IV. *A Navigation School should provide an ample Educational Staff, whose income should be sufficient, and a certain portion of it fixed, and whose energies should be mainly directed to the Education of the Boys.*

The educational staff, as a general rule, is very insufficient, owing to a school for adults having been generally established in connexion with the school for boys.* This course was adopted chiefly for economical reasons, it being intended that the large fees from the adult class should pay the greater proportion of the expense of the school; but it has resulted in the boys' school being most seriously injured, as follows, without any compensating advantages.

The boys who pay fees, from 6d. to 1s. a week, are constantly and unavoidably neglected by the head master, whose interest it is to attend to the adults who pay from 5s. to 7s. a week; and even if superior to that motive, the head master can not leave the adults for more than a few minutes at a time, because, and not unnaturally, they insist on his remaining with them.

A peculiarity in the mode of paying masters of Navigation Schools is in increasing his compensation from all other sources by the payment by the Department of an amount represented by the certificate he may hold of his success in passing examination in certain group of subjects. The scheme is as follows:

Group I. Mathematics necessary to the study of navigation,	£5
Group II. General navigation and nautical astronomy,	15
Group III. Adjustment and skillful handling of instruments,	5
Group IV. Physical geography,	10
Group V. Physics, mechanics, marine steam engine,	10
Group VI. Chemistry,	5
Group VII. Natural history,	5
Group VIII. Chart, freehand, and mechanical drawing,	5
	£50

This group payment is a well devised scheme to induce masters to improve themselves, and is applicable to teachers of every grade, and if rightly applied, will operate as a constant stimulus to professional improvement. But in the case of this class of schools, where there are pupils on a varying scale of direct payment to the teacher, the teacher will be tempted to give his particular attention to the pupils who pay best. This can be counteracted by making the masters' payment depend on the proficiency of the scholars.

To obtain and keep the services of the zealous, intelligent, and very superior men who alone are fit to take charge of navigation schools, I believe a superannuation allowance would be at the same time the greatest and most economical inducement.

I beg to suggest that at 60 years of age a navigation master be allowed to

* The school at Hull is the only navigation school at which no adults are received.

retire with his group money as an allowance. This would be a great inducement to remain in connection with the Department, and to pass in as many groups as possible.

The direct inducement which I propose to give to the educational staff to bring their schools up to the highest state of efficiency is a payment in money, and I have been induced to propose this from the sense of the paramount advantage derived in any undertaking from making it the direct pecuniary interest of agents to act up to their instructions.

I propose that every head master, every assistant master and every pupil-teacher employed in teaching the boys shall receive a sum of money in addition to his fixed salary and his group money to depend on and vary with the success of the school at the half-yearly examinations. The mode by which I propose to estimate the amount of this payment will be detailed further on, when I speak of inspections.

It consists of a sliding scale of payment, so contrived that it is the direct pecuniary interest of the head master to bring all his boys up to the highest state of proficiency, and also the direct pecuniary interest of all the educational staff to refrain from forcing on the clever boys, if by so doing they neglect the duller boys, and also to refrain from drawing the boys into the upper and more showy subjects to the neglect of the lower, more elementary, but more important subjects, errors commonly and but too justly ascribed to schoolmasters in their endeavors to give to their schools the appearance of high efficiency.

I am aware that the sliding scale of payment which I propose has the demerit of novelty.

The Committee of Council, fully alive to the advantage of a sliding scale, have provided that, in the primary schools, the master's pay shall depend on and vary with the school pence and the capitation grant (a grant which is made to depend upon the attendance of the children,) in the art schools it is made to depend on and vary with the number of prizes won by the students.

The disadvantage of the former plan is that the sliding scale, being made to depend upon mere numerical attendance, both particular proficiency and general proficiency are ignored.

The disadvantage of the latter is that it is made the master's direct pecuniary interest to force on the clever boys to the neglect of the dull boys, while general proficiency and numerical attendance are ignored.

There are doubtless good reasons why these very different plans should have been adopted in primary and art schools.

In the scheme of varying payment which I propose for navigation schools, both the general proficiency of the school and the numerical attendance of the scholars are made the measures of the masters' emoluments, while the proficiency of individual boys is fostered by prizes and exhibitions.

V. The Masters of Navigation Schools should display great intelligence and aptitude for teaching, should be intimately acquainted with the best methods of instruction, and be zealous in the performance of their duties.

As a general rule I have found the masters intelligent and apt to teach. The majority of them have enjoyed the privilege of an education at Greenwich under Mr. Riddle.

It is important that the masters should be drawn from some normal school; Greenwich school appears admirably adapted for such purpose. To draw a large supply of masters from that school, and retain their services, the position of the masters in a pecuniary point of view must in my opinion be improved. But if this is done an engagement should be entered into to remain as a navigation schoolmaster for a certain time, and after that, not to leave without at least two months' warning.

The position of assistants should be open to all persons whose credentials previously received, as to good character, proficiency in all the subjects taught in this class of schools, and required for the place, are satisfactory. The examination should be public, and the results published. The vacancies among the head masters should be open to competition among the assistant masters.

VII. The Navigation Schools should be judiciously situated, have large airy rooms, a good playground, gymnastic poles, and a lending library.

Exercise at gymnastics is most beneficial to the boys' health, and confirms them in their choice of the naval profession. The lads when they go to sea are much more useful afloat if they have acquired the agility and daring which can alone be gained by gymnastic exercises.

One of the causes of the rapid deterioration in the physique of our sailors is the diminution of work afloat consequent on the introduction of steam.

VIII. The Fees in a Navigation School should be carefully adjusted.

A carefully adjusted scheme of fees from 1d. to 1s. per week will not exclude by their amount any poor boys whom we might wish to admit, or to repel by their insignificance those parents who would attach no value to that which cost them little.

The larger portion of the fees, after deducting a certain fixed sum, or a certain definite proportion of them for local expenses, will stand in the school accounts to the credit of the local committee, and will be expended from time to time, with the consent of the Department, in paying the masters' salaries, the boys' exhibition money, &c.

In some seaports, where there is a pertinacious disinclination on the part of the parents of the boys to their going to sea, I have suggested to the committee the undertaking to return all or a portion of the school fees of any boy who has passed above a certain mark, on proof being received that the boy has sailed. This would in many cases act both on parent and child as a great inducement to the boy to go to sea.

IX. Navigation Schools should be periodically inspected and reported on.

Inspection to be really valuable should be thorough. Now the subjects in which it is proposed that the boys shall be taught at the Navigation School are very numerous, and none of them should, if possible, be allowed to escape the notice of the inspector and the test of examination.

I propose that there shall be two examinations every half-year, (1) the general examination, to measure the progress and proficiency of the navigation classes, and the payment to be made to the educational staff; (2) the special competitive examination for prizes and exhibitions. The first will be held in the course of the half-year, in the presence of the inspector and master, the answers, however, to be looked over and valued in London. The second will be held at the close of the half-year, in the presence of the master and of one or more of the local committee. It will be entirely a written examination, the questions to be sent from the Department. To prevent any suspicion of unfair treatment, the examination books should, after each examination, be sealed up at the close of the day, in the presence of the boys, and sent to London. The prizes and prize scholarships will be awarded when the school meets again, at the commencement of the next half-year. The answers will be valued in London, by a person appointed for that special purpose. The practice I have adopted is to give full numbers for an accurate answer, half numbers for an answer which, though inaccurate, shows intelligence.

The inspector who conducts the general examination should have with him various papers of questions of equal value on each subject, so as to diminish the possibility of information as to the questions set at the examination being communicated from one school to the other. The masters have a direct pecuniary interest in preventing any information being sent to the other schools.

I suggest that the general examination, to ascertain the amount of examination money, be conducted in the following manner:

The school to be arranged previous to the arrival of the inspector, in five classes, each class separated from the other as far as the arrangements of the school will admit, and the five classes to be so composed as to be about equal, both in average and collective intelligence. No difficulty is experienced by the masters in doing this.

The number won by the boys in a class in a particular subject will be added together and divided by the number of boys in the class; the result will be the mean number for that subject for that class, and the classes being equal, that number will be a measure of the proficiency of the school in that subject. The

number of boys in the school multiplied by the sum of the mean numbers will be the number which will determine the sum of money to be apportioned to that school, and divided among the educational staff.

I propose that a sum of money, at the discretion of the Department, be divided* once a year among the schools, in the ratio of the numbers obtained as above, and that notice be given to them to that effect at the commencement of each year, naming the total sum. I propose that the sum won by the school should be divided among the educational staff in the following proportions:—

Head Master	5 shares, but total not to exceed	£30
Assistant Masters, each	2 shares, but total not to exceed	12
Pupil-Teachers, each	1 share, but total not to exceed	6

As every progressive step made by the dullest boy who attends the classes tells on the gross number, and through it on the pecuniary gain of the whole staff, the staff will have no temptation to neglect, but on the contrary, every inducement to push on the dull boys, and as proficiency in the lower subjects counts as much as proficiency in the highest the common fault of neglecting the low subjects would evidently diminish very much the profits of the staff, and will therefore be prevented.

I consider this sliding scale would be preferable to paying the master a certain sum for every prize won in the school, which is a direct temptation and inducement to him to select from time to time the most promising boys, and put them under pressure to make prize boys of them, neglecting the dull boys of the same standing who can not on that system of reward be productive of any benefit. The collateral advantages of this system.

(1.) It becomes the direct personal interest of the staff to retain the boys as long as possible, in order that at each examination, there shall be as many boys as possible well advanced in all the subjects.

(2.) That it becomes their direct personal interest, to select from among the boys presenting themselves for entry, those that are most advanced in the elementary subjects, so that their backwardness may diminish the mean numbers as little as possible.

(3.) That it becomes their direct personal interest to work the school with as few masters as possible, as thereby their individual gains are larger.

(4.) Competition is created among the Navigation schools and their educational staffs. The result of each examination should be allowed to be published in the local papers, and the results of the examinations at all the Navigation schools should be made known at each school.

(5.) The inspector and the Department can see at a glance whether any Navigation school has neglected any subject. The masters could not evade the rigor of this test by any artifice.

(6.) The boys will be induced generally to enter into the spirit of the competition, which will have the best effect. A few only can win the prizes and exhibitions, but all can contribute by their exertions to the comparative success of their school.

(7.) The local committee and the neighborhood would enter into the spirit of the struggle.

X. *A distinctive Dress or Badge is calculated to have a very good effect on the Navigation Schools.*

The Trinity Board at Hull gives to 80 boys in the Navigation school a neat uniform (blue jacket, blue and white trousers, and blue cap.) This has a capital effect on the boys, gives them an esprit d'école, and acts as a restraint on their conduct outside the schools.

XI. *In Navigation Schools great pains should be taken to ensure punctual attendance on the part of the boys.*

I beg to suggest that the best form of registers be provided, and that it be made imperative that the register be strictly kept in all the schools, and that the following practice be universal instead of partial, viz., that any boy arriving late is expected to produce a written authority from the master of his school or his parents for his absence. Prizes for good attendance have been found very useful in primary schools. I beg to suggest one prize of 10s., three of 5s., and five of 1s. every half-year, or 3*l.* a year in a school of 100 boys.

* I prefer this to any other plan, because the stimulus to exertion will be greater.

Capt. Ryder recommends that the daily record of attendance, proficiency, and conduct, be posted up on the walls of the school every week, month, half-year, and year, as well as the names of all prize boys.

Capt. Ryder goes into detail of the estimates of receipts and payments, and makes the education of each boy cost the Department about £2 10s. per boy per annum. The whole expense of teaching and clothing at the Hull School averages a little more than £6 per boy per annum.

Obstacles to the success of Navigation Schools.

The principal obstacles in the way of success, in addition to the inefficiency of the schools, the absence of prizes, &c., are three in number.

It is my firm belief that if the Department assist liberally the establishment of navigation schools, placing them on a proper footing, and stating that they are schools established for the sole purpose of giving special instruction in scientific subjects to boys intended for the Royal Navy and the Commercial Marine, these three obstacles will gradually vanish. They are,—

(I.) *A disinclination on the part of shipowners to enter boys.*

In reply to my inquiries the owners of steamers stated, "We don't want boys, who eat as much as men, are of very little use, and give a great deal of trouble; we want men.

Steam having superseded the use of sails to a great extent, boys, who in sailing vessels are invaluable for light work aloft, are not valued in steamers.

Many of the sailors, so-called, that we find in steamers differ very little from landsmen, except that they are not sea-sick, they can take the wheel and pull an oar. To all the valuable qualities of a true sailor, which were developed by and almost entirely due to his work aloft, viz., agility, readiness of resource, indifference to all danger that may be escaped by bodily activity, as distinct from that solid courage which all Englishmen possess, the steam sailor can lay slight claim.

In the Royal Navy we want the superior class of sailors, and if possible those alone. The partial substitution of steam for sails, while it has injured our own sailors has, in the same way and for the same reason, injured those in the commercial marine, on whose aid and support we may at any time be thrown for a supply of seamen.

It is most important, therefore, that every impulse should be given to keep up in the commercial navy both the quantity and quality of the seamen; it is much to be regretted, therefore, that the same disinclination to take boys, although fortunately in a less degree, exists among the shipowners of sailing vessels.

Lads enter on board merchant ships, some as apprentices, some as boys.

In the employment of the larger shipowners apprenticeships are highly valued.* The proportion of apprentices to tonnage at present is about 1 to 200 tons. Before the repeal of the navigation laws, it was by Act of Parliament 1 to every 100 tons.

The disinclination to enter boys will, I believe, gradually vanish when the attention of the shipowners, as a body, is attracted to the valuable class of boys who will attend the Navigation schools, for they will be induced to reflect, that although at first sight it may appear to be more economical to enter no boys or

* The value attached to an apprenticeship varies largely with the employs, the port, &c. Mr. Green charges £30 for a four-years' apprenticeship as a midshipman. Large shipowners at Glasgow and elsewhere pay £5 for a similar term to a common apprentice.

apprentices, or a very few only, and those at very low wages,* yet that by so doing they are contributing indirectly, but yet surely and certainly, to the deterioration of the whole class of seamen, and to the ultimate injury of the ship-owning interest.

(II.) *A disinclination on the part of parents to send their boys to sea.*

While sailors are, what they frequently are at present, not the most moral or respectable members of society, it is probable and natural that many parents would regret their sons' choice of the sea as a profession.

But as sailors and masters improve by the aid of navigation schools, where they will be instructed in their youth, and are received in sailors' homes at every port where their vessels touch, this class of objections will gradually become obsolete; and the profession of the sailor will take its proper place by that of the high skilled mechanic as one of the noblest professions a working man's son can adopt, being also one of the highest paid; 3*l.* and 4*l.* a month besides victuals and medical attendance being the not uncommon emoluments of a merchant seaman. Moreover, the profession of a sailor, if he is a steady man, may be rendered both healthy, improving, and entertaining, and acts most beneficially on the character and temper. Steam and science are rapidly diminishing the longest voyages, and long periods of absence, one of the not unnatural objections of a parent, are becoming the exception instead of the rule.

The wish to go to sea is implanted by Providence, doubtless for the wisest purposes, in large numbers of the boys of these islands, frequently in those who have never seen the sea. Those parents, ministers, or schoolmasters who take upon themselves to thwart this natural and laudable wish, going the length, as they frequently do, of treating the boy's desire as an evidence of a vagabond and depraved taste, may be fairly charged with the responsibility of the boy's immoral and depraved life, if such unfortunately is the result of his going to sea, for his naval career is probably commenced by running away from home, and he thus severs all those domestic ties which conduce so much to the preservation of purity of life and manners.

This conduct on the part of parents should be deprecated by every one who has the best interests of his country at heart.

Every respectable and well conducted boy who desires to go to sea should be aided and assisted to do so, and this course should be systematically adopted throughout the country. The Government, by the support of navigation schools, show their opinion on this subject. It only remains for the schools to be put on a proper and liberal footing, worthy of the Government and of the object which they are intended to serve. When this is done, the profession of the sailor will be rescued in the minds of the lower classes from all the odium which at present surrounds it.

(III.) *A disinclination on the part of boys to go to sea.*

This disinclination exists in some ports and not in others; it will decrease wherever it exists when Navigation schools, established on a liberal footing, offering the inducements I have suggested, are placed near the docks in every seaport town of any size or importance. It is advisable that the schools should be so placed that the boys can when out of the school play about among the shipping, witness and long to imitate the evolutions of the sailors aloft, &c.

* Owing to the low rate of wages referred to, large numbers of apprentices run away every year, after they have served a portion of their time.

An attractive evening class will have to be established for the instruction of boys who have to work for their livelihood during the day, and for apprentices. I have proposed that half the fees be given to the educational staff, to insure their taking a direct pecuniary interest in the evening class.

In concluding this report, I wish to state, that I am fully impressed with the great benefit that the establishment of good Navigation schools would confer directly on the Royal Navy, the Commercial Marine, and the country; and that I see every reason for believing, that if the schools are placed on a proper footing, the classes will be largely attended, and the schools will answer every purpose for which they are established. The limited number of thirty Navigation schools, which I have suggested, should be forthwith established, although only professing to assist in providing a sufficient supply of educated young men to fill up the vacancies among the masters and mates, yet can not fail to tell with the best effect on the commercial marine generally. For these well-educated lads, who, after leaving the Navigation schools, have to struggle through that large body, the seamen of the commercial marine, before they can win the prizes of their profession, must raise the tone of the class through which they pass.

If the thirty schools are established, and after two or three years are evidently working well, it will be worth considering whether more schools of a simpler and less expensive character should not be established to educate a sufficient number of lads fully to supply the vacancies in the seamen class.

The alterations I have proposed in the mode of payment of the educational staff are those upon which I desire to lay the most stress; they have had but one object in view, the making it the personal pecuniary interest of each member of the staff to devote himself zealously to those duties, and to no other, which the Department wishes him to perform. In individual cases, we might appeal to higher motives than these, but in dealing with a body of men, however upright and conscientious, I am firmly convinced that there is no safer course than the appealing to the lower motive in aid of the higher.

The plan of payment of the teachers of navigation schools generally, presented by Capt. Ryder, was substantially adopted by the Department having charge of this class of schools, in 1860, but was changed to the following Minute in April, 1863, on the recommendation of Capt. Donnelly, for the purpose of restricting the efforts of the teacher, and the industry of the scholars, to the subject of Mathematics, Navigation, Nautical Astronomy, and the Use of Instruments, leaving general elementary studies to be mastered in other schools.

AID TO NAVIGATION SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

I. Payments will be made by the Department only on the results of instruction in the following subjects:

1. Mathematics, including such portions of Algebra, Geometry, Mensuration, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Logarithms, as far as necessary for understanding Navigation and Nautical Astronomy.

2. General Navigation.

3. Nautical Astronomy.

4. Physical Geography.

5. Steam and the Steam Engine.

II. The payments will be made to those teachers only who have taken certificates as qualified to teach the above studies.

III. Examination for teachers will be held annually in November, in South

Kingston, Dublin and Edinburgh. The traveling expenses of candidates if successful will be paid.

IV. Examination for students will be held

(1.) The adults, seamen and others, at the seaport towns where local Marine Boards are formed and are prepared to undertake them from year to year.

(2.) The youths, in inland towns once a year, the examination forming part of the general May Science examination will be held simultaneously all over the kingdom where local committees are formed to conduct them, the examination papers being supplied by the Science and Art Department.

V. The successful candidate will be classed as passed with honorable mention, third, second, and first grade certificates. In the three last, a certificate will be given to that effect. The grades of success may be improved at any future examination.

VI. The teacher will receive one, two, three, four or five pounds, according to the class of success of his pupils, on the condition that the pupil, if a boy, shall have received forty lessons, at least, from the teacher, and then goes to sea, and if an adult at sea, then he shall have received twenty lessons, at least.

VII. Should the pupil have been previously examined and payment made on his account, the twenty or forty lessons, as the case may be, must have been given since that examination, and the payment to the teacher will be the difference between that sum previously paid and the amount found due on the grade then taken.

VIII. A local committee must in all cases be formed, and from them the teacher will receive the necessary vouchers.

IX. The sum above fixed can only be considered experimental, and may be altered from year to year.

School of Naval Architecture.

By a recent order of the Admiralty, and in connection with the Science and Art Department of the Board of Education, a new Royal School of Naval Architecture has been established and opened at South Kensington, London, for the instruction, not only of pupils for the Royal Dockyards, and of officers of the Royal Navy, but for the use of naval architects, and ship builders in wood and iron, marine engineers, inspectors of works, shipwrights, and the public generally.

Lectures, illustrated by experiments, models, &c, will be given in the winter months, on the properties of materials, used in the construction of ships, and class instruction in drawing, design, and the sciences connected with the arts employed in naval architecture, by teachers whose qualifications have been tested by an open examination.

Government scholarships, Queen's medals and prizes will be established and be open to competition.

Fees will be charged in addition to the Government appropriation.

We have in various ways, but mainly by personal conference, called the attention of members of the School Boards in our seaports to the importance of recognizing the demands of our national and commercial marine, in the location, outfit and studies of one or more of their public schools. The subject has a National importance, and for the reasons and in the plan developed by Capt. Ryder, in foregoing extracts, for England, we hope the suggestions made by the Visitors of the U. S. Naval Academy, in the Report of their Examination for 1864, for some immediate and liberal action on the part of Congress, and the Navy Department, will receive a more than passing attention.

VI. ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

REPORT OF HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS.*

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS of England which have long held a prominent position as places of instruction for the wealthier classes—the Colleges of Eton and Winchester, and the Schools of Westminster, the Charterhouse, St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury—from their position at the head of the whole system of Public School Education in England, and from the interest which attaches to them as old, well-known, and influential institutions, are worthy of yet farther notice than has already been given them in preceding volumes of this Journal. We deem no apology needed for calling the attention of our readers to the exceedingly interesting and valuable report, recently published, of the Queen's Commissioners, appointed to inquire into their condition and management.

This Board of Commissioners consisted of the Earls of Clarendon and Derby, Lord Lyttleton, Hon. Edward Turner Boyd Twisleton, Sir Stafford Henry Northcote, William Hepworth Thomson, and Henry Hatford Vaughan, appointed July 18th, 1861, to inquire "into the nature and application of the Endowments, Funds, and Revenues belonging to or received by" the above-named Colleges and Schools, "and into the administration and management of the said Colleges, &c., and into the system and course of studies respectively pursued therein, as well as into the methods, subjects, and extent of the instruction given to the Students," and the fullest authority was given to make such examination of persons and records as might seem necessary. In the course of the investigation, which has not wanted in thoroughness and diligence, series of questions were proposed to the several Governing Bodies and to the Head Masters of the schools, examinations were made of persons who were, as well as of others who had previously been officially connected with them, and also of many who had been educated at them. The Professors and Tutors of the Universities, and the Council of Military Education, (in respect of the Military Schools of Woolwich, &c.,) were inquired of, in order to learn the results of the instruction given and the standing of the graduates. The investigation was also extended to the more recently founded Colleges of Marlborough, Cheltenham, and Wellington,

* Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Revenues and Management of certain Colleges, Schools, and Foundations, and the Studies pursued and Instruction given therein; with an Appendix and Evidence. Vol. I. Report. London, 1864.

and to the City of London and King's College Schools, with their improved systems of instruction, and advantage was taken of a favorable opportunity which presented itself, to inquire into the Higher Schools of Prussia.

In this first volume of the resulting report are embodied the conclusions at which the Commissioners arrived respecting the nine schools, collectively as well as separately. In Part II. of the report, the schools are treated of separately and a succinct statement is made of all the material facts that the inquiry had elicited in regard to each. Part I., on the other hand, contains the broader results of the inquiry, the conclusions which they suggest, and the views of the Commissioners respecting the government and management of these great English schools, and the education they afford, pointing out defects in the range and methods of that education, and suggesting enlargements and improvements.

From this first portion of the report we propose to make such abstracts and extracts as will express these views and suggestions of the Commissioners, and give a correct idea of the general character and condition of these schools which have become especially identified with what in England is commonly called Public School Education. For Public School Education, as it exists in England and in England alone, has grown up chiefly within their walls, and has been propagated from them; and though now surrounded by younger institutions of a like character, and of great and increasing importance, they are still in common estimation its acknowledged types, as they have for several generations been its principal centers. The opinions and suggestions of the Commissioners, moreover, no less than many of the facts which they disclose, give curious evidence of the strong power which traditions and custom have over the English mind, and how tenderly they treat and uphold opinions and laws that have the hoar of antiquity upon them. Yet their opinions, as here expressed upon various educational problems which have been long tested in these schools, are of great importance to ourselves in relation to our own present and future higher institutions of learning.

Origin.—These schools were founded within a period ranging from the close of the 14th century to the beginning of the 17th century—from the reign of Richard II. to that of James I. Winchester, the earliest, founded by William of Wykeham, is older by several generations than the Reformation, and the revival of classical literature in England. Eton, half a century later, was modeled after Winchester; each was an integral part of a great collegiate establishment, in which the promotion of learning was the principal aim, but not the founder's sole purpose. Westminster is one of the many grammar schools attached to cathedral and collegiate churches for which provision was made after the dissolution of the monasteries; but it acquired, or perhaps inherited from the ancient school of the monastery of St. Peter, an importance peculiarly its own. Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, Merchant Taylors' and St. Paul's were among the multitude of schools founded in the 16th century, either by grants of

church lands from the Crown, or by private persons, with endowments sufficient to afford the best education known in that day, to so many day scholars as the neighborhood was likely to supply or the reputation of a competent teacher to attract.

Endowment.—The endowments of these schools vary very much and bear no proportion to their magnitude. Charter-house, Eton, and Winchester have annual revenues amounting to £22,750, £20,500, and £15,500 respectively. St. Paul's, Rugby, Shrewsbury, and Harrow have £9,500, £5,600, £3,900, and £1,000. Westminster is sustained from the revenues of the chapter to which it is attached, and the Merchant Taylors' School by the Merchant Taylors' Society. But it is the opinion of the Commissioners that to a large and popular school, so long as it is large and popular, a permanent endowment is not of essential importance; there can be no doubt, however, that such an endowment is of great service in enabling any school to provide and maintain suitable buildings, to attract to itself, by exhibitions and other substantial rewards, its due share of clever and hard-working boys, to keep up by these means its standard of industry and attainment, and run an equal race with others which possess this advantage, and to bear, without a ruinous diminution of its teaching staff, those fluctuations of prosperity to which all schools are liable.

Government.—The schools exhibit great diversities of government and constitution. The Governing Body of Eton College consists of the Provost and Fellows; of Winchester College, of the Warden and Fellows; of Westminster School, of the Dean and Canons of the church. These persons hold the college property and appoint and dismiss the Master. In the other schools these rights belong either to specially corporated trustees, or, as in the case of St. Paul's, by the will of Dean Colet, to the Court of Assistants of the Mercers' Company; in the Charter-house School, to the Governors of Sutton Hospital; and in the Merchant Taylors' School, to the Merchant Taylors' Company. The nature and extent of their power of superintendence over the Head Master is determined by documentary authority and by usage. In some cases his power is practically unfettered and supreme, at others his power of effecting changes is limited to recommendations to the governing body.

Uniformity in the constitution of these Governing Bodies is not essential, but some modifications are considered by the Commissioners desirable, and some common features should belong to them all. Such a body should be permanent in itself, being the guardian and trustee of the permanent interests of the school; though not unduly large, it should be protected by its numbers and by the position and character of its individual members from the domination of personal or local interests, and of personal or professional influences or prejudices; and might well include men conversant with the world, with the requirements of active life, and with the progress of literature and science. In the case of some of the schools a certain proportion of the Governing Body should be nominated

by the Crown. Their powers should include, at the least, the management of the property of the school and of its revenues; the control of its expenditure; the appointment and dismissal of the Head Master; the regulation of boarding-houses, of fees and charges, of Masters' stipends, of the terms of admission to the school, and of the times and length of vacations; the supervision of the general treatment of the boys, and all arrangements bearing on the sanitary condition of the school. As regards discipline and teaching, the Head Master, on the other hand, should be as far as possible unfettered. The appointment and dismissal of assistant masters, the measures necessary for maintaining discipline, and the general direction of the course and methods of study, which it is his duty to conduct and his business to understand thoroughly, had better be left in his hands. The introduction of a new branch of study, however, or the suppression of one already established, and the relative degrees of weight to be assigned to different branches, may be better judged of by such a body of governors as suggested, men conversant with the requirements of public and professional life and acquainted with the general progress of science and literature, than by a single person, however able and accomplished, whose views may be more circumscribed, and whose mind is liable to be unduly pressed by difficulties of detail. What should be taught, and what importance should be given to each subject, are therefore questions for the Governing Body; how to teach is a question for the Head Master. The Governing Body should, however, act upon such matters in connection with the Master.

If it is important that a thorough understanding and opportunities for unreserved communication should exist between the Governing Body and the Head Master, it is even more so that he should be on similar terms with his assistants. That there should be friendly intercourse between them, and that an assistant should be at liberty to make suggestions to his chief, is not enough. Valuable suggestions and useful information, which individual masters, and they only, are qualified to afford, may often be lost for want of a recognized opportunity of communicating them; and private interviews, however readily granted, are not an adequate substitute for free and general discussion. The practice introduced by Dr. Arnold at Rugby, of meeting all his assistants for consultation at frequent intervals, appears to have had the happiest results. A similar practice exists at Harrow, and comparing these schools with Eton, it is evident that the assistants here have a thorough sense of co-operation with the Head Master and with each other, which is wanting in the latter.

It is the invariable practice at Eton, and almost so at Winchester, to recruit the staff of Classical Masters, the Head Master included, from those who have been educated at those schools respectively. The other schools are restricted by no such rule or usage. The usage of one school differs much from that of another, and it is very desirable undoubtedly that the masters of every school should be perfectly familiar with its system of discipline and teaching, its unwritten customs, and all that stamps it

with a character of its own, as well as that they should be animated with a warm attachment to it. We believe, however, say the Commissioners, that even where tradition has most power it is not very difficult for an able and intelligent man to acquaint himself sufficiently in a short time with the distinctive features of the system which he has to administer; and the experience of a great majority of schools has amply shown how heartily such a man can throw himself into the working, and how thoroughly he can identify himself with the character and interests of one to which he has previously been a stranger. It must be observed at the same time, that a school which is debarred, or which bebars itself by a restriction of this kind, from taking the best man that can be had, must necessarily suffer from it to a greater or less degree; and it must be disadvantageous also for any school to be officered exclusively by men brought up within its walls, and imbued with its peculiar prejudices and opinions, and without experience of any system or any methods but its own.

Statutes—Necessity for a Power of Revision and Alteration.—Several of these schools possess ancient statutes or rules designed to settle permanently, with more or less of minuteness, their organization and course of teaching, but in some with no provision for the relaxation of them, or for their adaptation to new circumstances of a different state of society. Dean Colet, founder of St. Paul's, expressly authorized the Court of Assistants of the Mercers' Company to alter and amend his ordinances as might be deemed requisite from time to time. A similar power was given to the governors of Harrow, has been created at Winchester, and exists virtually to a greater or less extent at other schools. In the absence of them, recourse is invariably had to the principle, as it may be called, of desuetude; and it is assumed that old constitutions which contain minute directions and create no authority for varying them, must, when the lapse of time has rendered an exact compliance with them impracticable, be construed by the aid of such usages as have been gradually established by necessity or convenience. No accumulation, it is plain, of stringent or even imprecatory terms, as in the case of the Eton statutes, can ever secure perpetuity to institutions which from their very nature must undergo a change. Often, too, the spirit of the statutes, which it would be desirable to observe, is violated or forgotten. It is clearly expedient, if not indispensable, for the permanent continuance of foundations of this nature, that most extensive powers of adaptation and amendment should exist in all cases, and it seems only necessary to provide that they should be lodged in proper hands. There is evidently no security that practical changes will be made well and advisedly, which are introduced without deliberate intention, without responsibility, and without the intervention of any higher authority to protect the permanent interests of the foundation from being undermined by private and personal interests. The principle to be pursued, where ancient statutes are not abrogated but reformed, is sufficiently clear. The statutes of founders are to be upheld

and enforced whenever they conduce to the general objects of the foundation and so long as those objects continue to be practicable and useful, but they are to be modified whenever they require a closer adaptation to the wants of modern society.

Foundation Scholars; their Government and Condition.—Speaking generally, the foundation boys are, in the eye of the law, the school. The legal position of the Head Master of Eton is that of teacher or “informator” of seventy poor and indigent boys, received and boarded within Eton College; the Head Master of Harrow is legally the master of a daily grammar-school, established in a country village for the benefit, primarily, of its immediate neighborhood. A foundationer at Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury, is ordinarily a day-scholar, sharing gratuitously, or almost gratuitously, in the general instruction of the school. At Eton, Winchester, Westminster, and the Charter-house, he is a boy separately lodged, separately boarded, maintained as well as educated free of charge or at a comparatively small expense, and obtaining, or having the opportunity of competing for, a farther provision, more or less valuable, when he leaves school. But in every case, except those of Merchant Taylors’ and St. Paul’s, and perhaps Shrewsbury, the bulk of each school, as now existing, is an accretion upon the original foundation, and consists of boarders received by masters or other persons at their own expense and risk, and for their own profit. The proportion actually existing between foundationers and non foundationers, at the several schools which admit the latter, was as follows in 1861:—

	Foundationers.	Non-foundationers.
Eton,	61	722
Winchester,	69	128
Westminster,	40	96
Harrow,	33	431
Rugby,	68	397
Shrewsbury,	26	106
Charter-house,	45	71

In respect of these classes, there is, to a small extent, a real division of power and of responsibility. The Head Master can expel a non-foundationer; he can not expel a foundationer. But as convenience clearly required that the management of both classes should be one and the same, the Governing Body has acquired an indirect control over the whole school by virtue of their direct authority over a part of it; and it is desirable that for the purposes of government, instruction and discipline, all the boys should in every case be considered as one school, subject to the same authorities and in the same degree.

The position held by foundation boys among their school-fellows varies much at different schools. But it seems tolerably clear from the evidence that in none of the schools is he lowered in the estimation of his companions by the mere fact of his receiving an eleemosynary education, and apart from causes which judicious management may remove, there seems

to be nothing to prevent the founders from taking socially as well as intellectually an equal or (as in some cases they do) even the foremost rank in the school. It may generally be said that they enjoy advantages equal to those which the founders intended for them. Their situation has, at several of the schools, been greatly and progressively improved during the present century; and it is doubtless now better than it has been at any former period. They are better lodged, better fed, better taught, better attended to, than they ever were before—without meaning to imply that their position is better than it ought to be, taking into account the intentions of the several founders, the increased value of the endowments, and the change of manners.

There is no doubt that the collegiate schools were primarily though not solely designed for the benefit of meritorious poverty, as were the independent grammar-schools for the benefit of some particular town, village, or neighborhood. At Westminster the qualification respecting poverty is considered obsolete, and admission to the foundation has long been the prize of a competitive examination, and the same principle has been recently introduced at Eton and Winchester (with little or no preference for poverty) with excellent results. Speaking generally, it must be said that the difficulty of assigning a precise meaning to the word poverty, the doubt what class of persons, if any, at the present day, really answers to the *pauperes et indigentes scholares* of the Lancasterian and Tudor periods, and the further doubt whether poverty is not after all best served by giving the widest encouragement to industry, coupled with the interest which every school has in collecting the best boys from the largest surface, have tended and will continually tend to render the qualification of indigence practically inoperative. Respecting the right to gratuitous education originally conferred by the founders upon the children of the places where the schools were located, it is to be observed that the parents of the boys thus privileged are chiefly—at Harrow almost exclusively—strangers to the neighborhood, who have come to reside there temporarily, for the purpose of obtaining, at little expense to themselves, a good education for their children. As this was certainly not intended nor contemplated by the founder, the abolition of the local privilege in these cases is recommended.

Course and Subjects of Instruction.—The nine schools were educating altogether, at Christmas, 1861, 2,696 boys, between the ages of eight and nineteen years, the average age being not far short of fifteen years. Their numbers have fluctuated greatly within a recent period, some having fallen comparatively low while others enjoy a rank and popularity higher than ever before. The course of study of all these schools appears to have been originally confined to the classical languages and to have remained substantially unaltered from a very early to a very late period, governed in a great measure by established custom and habit. The position which the classics now hold is due in the first place perhaps to their intrinsic excellence as an instrument of education; but other causes

have shared largely in producing it. School education alters slowly and runs long in the same groove; a master can only teach what he has himself learned, and is naturally inclined to set the highest value on the studies to which his own life has been given. At the two oldest of the schools this tendency has been strengthened not only by ardent attachment to their peculiar traditions, but by the habit of receiving as Masters only men brought up within their own walls. The great schools, again, have always educated principally with a view to the Universities; the path of access to the learned professions lies through the Universities; the work done at school tells thoroughly and directly on the examinations for admission to the Universities and for University prizes and distinctions, whilst it has not, until recently, assisted a youth to obtain entrance into the public service, civil or military, at home or in India; the cleverest and most diligent boys, for whom the system of study has been chiefly molded, have gone to the Universities; and all the Masters have been University men.

The two classical languages, with a little ancient history and geography, held, until a short time ago, absolute and exclusive possession of the whole course of study. It now includes, at every school, arithmetic and mathematics as well as classics; at every school, except Eton, either French or German also—at Rugby and the Charter-house, both French and German, though at Rugby the natural sciences may be substituted. At Merchant Taylors' it includes Hebrew and drawing. Lectures on natural science are given at Winchester, and occasionally at Eton to those who wish to attend. There is also a lecturer on chemistry at the Charter-house, and periodical voluntary examinations in natural science at Harrow. Drawing may be learned as an extra at all the schools, and generally some instruction in music may be gained in the same way.

The means of classical instruction include the study of Latin and Greek grammar, the daily construing and occasional translation into English of Latin and Greek writers, the repetition of passages, chiefly of Latin and Greek poetry, that have been learned by heart, and the practice of composition in verse and prose. Construing, repetition, and composition are the chief occupation of the higher forms. There is some reason to think that the grounding in grammar is not always so thorough and accurate as is desirable, or that sufficient care is not taken to keep up what is thus acquired as the boys advance in their work. Different grammars, both Latin and Greek, are used in the different schools. The range of authors construed is sufficiently various and extensive, unless Eton be an exception. The assiduous practice of repetition, and that of composition, original and translated, has long been among the characteristics of the great English schools, and a high value is still set upon them by English schoolmasters.

The average time assigned to arithmetic and mathematics is about three hours a week in school and the same amount devoted to preparatory work. At a majority of the schools, marks are given for mathematics, depending generally upon the relative time devoted to it, which deter-

ine more or less a boy's rise in the classical forms of the school. In every school, except Eton, two hours a week, exclusive of preparation, are also given to modern languages, marks for which count in promotion only at Winchester, Harrow, and Rugby. There are distinct prizes at all the schools for proficiency in mathematics and in modern languages respectively. Classification in both these branches is, however, dependent upon that of the classical school, which is found a great hindrance to advancement. Indeed, both share the disadvantage of being subordinate to the principal study, which is that of the classics. The chief honors and distinctions of the schools are classical; their traditions are classical; the Head Master and the Tutors are men distinguished chiefly as classical scholars, and attached more or less ardently to classical learning; the path of promotion and the subjects on which the time and thoughts of the boys are employed are mainly classical; classics are also, to a great majority of the boys, intrinsically more attractive than mathematics, and to the oldest and most diligent more so than French and German. But mathematics at least have established a title to respect as an instrument of mental discipline; they are recognized and honored at the Universities, and it is easy to obtain mathematical masters of high ability who have had a University education. It is otherwise with the study of modern languages, which in each of these respects, but especially in the last, labors under peculiar and great difficulties; while it has had less time to establish itself and has to make head against a stronger current of tradition and habit. Hence the success with which these studies are pursued is, in different degrees, not answerable to the time spent in learning and the pains and ability employed in teaching them. There is an especial deficiency in arithmetic and in French. Yet it appears that, speaking generally, boys who succeed in classics succeed also in mathematics and in modern languages; showing that ordinarily any boy of good capacity may with advantage study each of these subjects, and may study them all together. One disadvantage peculiar to the study of modern languages is the difficulty of procuring thoroughly effective teachers. It is less easy for a foreigner than for an Englishman of equal ability or education, to maintain discipline, to enforce attention, to secure influence, to understand his pupils thoroughly, and therefore to teach them well. Two of the teachers at the nine schools are Englishmen and two were educated at the schools where they teach. At Marlborough both French and German are taught by Englishmen. At Wellington School one foreign master in each language is employed, under whom are placed the best modern scholars and the beginners, while those boys who chiefly require to be steadily worked in exercises and construing, are under English masters.

The importance of some attention to history and geography is recognized more or less at all the schools, but in general there is little systematic teaching of either. In the lower forms it is common to give lessons in the outlines of history and geography, but all done beyond that is

generally to set a boy a portion of history to get up by himself, to examine him in it, and to encourage the farther study by means of prize essays. Special examinations in history, when held, occur either at the end or beginning of the term, the portion being set in the latter case as a "holiday task." At Harrow and Rugby every boy is made to traverse the whole outline of classical, Biblical, and English history in the course of his stay at school; partly by holiday tasks, partly by regular lessons at school. The proper degree and method of teaching history is a subject upon which English schoolmasters seem to have arrived at no very definite conclusions. At Marlborough, Wellington, and to some extent at Rugby, the reading of modern history is combined with that of French.

Organization. Promotion. Prizes.—A great school possesses, from its very magnitude, considerable advantages as a place of instruction, besides those which it derives from the same source as a place of moral training. It is able to command the services of the most eminent masters; it is likely to contain a comparatively large number of able and ambitious boys; the honors and distinctions which it has to offer are more prized because the successful competitor wins them from a larger field, and in the presence of a larger public; it has facilities, which a small school can not have, for the convenient organization of classes in each branch of study. It has, on the other hand, disadvantages of its own. The number of competitors, which braces and stimulates the energies of the ablest boys, may discourage backward ones; it is more difficult for a boy to obtain, and more easy for him to elude, the individual attention of the Master in whose form he is. The forms themselves must be very large or very numerous; in the former case it becomes a matter of chance whether a boy gets any teaching at all, in the latter he passes from one teacher to another too quickly to get full benefit from any; and these circumstances, with the small share of responsibility which each Master feels for the progress of each particular boy, strengthen, in either case, the temptation to take pains with only the more promising, and to let dullness and idleness take their chance. If the rewards of industry are more brilliant, idleness has also greater and more varied charms—has (except, perhaps, in the highest parts of the school) no influential public opinion against it, and holds out to a healthy and active boy who can succeed in games of strength and skill, distinctions which he prizes more than the honors of the school—distinctions also which are more within his reach, and give him more immediate influence among his school-fellows.

The most obvious inconvenience—the multiplication of forms—has been met to some extent by the Eton system of "divisions," and by the Rugby system of "parallel forms," but the chief remedy for this and other difficulties has been sought in the practice of placing every boy under the special charge of a tutor, whose connection with him continues unbroken during the whole of his stay at school, and whose duty it is to bestow that attention on him and undertake that responsibility for him

which can not be expected from the successive class-masters through whose hands he passes. To a very considerable extent this is an effectual remedy, provided each tutor has not more pupils than he can really attend to, and his relation to them is not suffered to degenerate into a merely nominal one.

The following Table will show the relative numbers of masters and boys in the several schools at the end of 1861 :—

	Number of Boys.	NUMBER OF MASTERS.			Num' er of Classical Divisions.	Maxim. in a Divis'n.	Minim. in a Divis'n.
		Classical.	Mathem.	Mod. Lan.			
Eton,	806	23	8	1	22	48	13
Winchester,	200	7*	2	3	8	41	10
Westminster,	136	5	2	2	6	30	12
Charter-house,	116	5	1†	3	8	20	9
St. Paul's,	146	4	1	2	6	40	15
Merchant Taylors',	262	6	4	2	10	32	18
Harrow,	481	16	4	2	14	37	21
Rugby,	463	14‡	3§	2	14	42	24
Shrewsbury,	131	4	1	1	4	40	23

The proper size of a division is limited by conditions. It should not contain boys in such different stages of progress that they can not advantageously be employed in the same work and heard together. It should be small enough to admit of all the boys who compose it being called up very frequently. By the first condition the number may vary from 15 to 60, according to the size of the school. The second condition is independent of the magnitude of the school. It has been urged in favor of large divisions that the number of boys animates the teacher, and enables him in turn to infuse life into his class. But it is still more important that the expectation of being called up should be strong enough to act as a thoroughly efficient stimulus from the top to the bottom of the division; that the benefit of being called up should be shared by all the boys very frequently; and that the class-master should not be tempted, by the number before him and the limited time at his disposal, either to pass over the more backward, or to abate his standard of accuracy, or be less searching in his questions. Differences in the method of teaching may in some degree affect the question, but as a general rule and in the absence of special circumstances, the average number should not much, if at all, exceed thirty.

The time actually spent in the school preparation of lessons, in the case of the upper boys, is small. An Eton fifth form boy is in school, on a whole school-day, about three hours, or during the week, from fourteen to fifteen; an upper boy at Harrow is at school about four hours and a

* Of these 3 were Composition Masters. A Classical Master has since been added.

† There is an Assistant Master of writing and arithmetic.

‡ One of these also teaches mathematics.

§ One of these also teaches natural science.

half, or in the week, about twenty-two hours; at Rugby, about twenty hours. A certain amount of time is also spent with the private tutor. The regular holidays subtract wholly from work 14 or 15 weeks in the year. It is evident, unless a good deal of time is given out of school to steady genuine work in preparation and composition, the work done is deficient in quantity. The whole daily work of boys not particularly diligent nor particularly idle, a class which constitutes the majority at all schools, can not be considered, lazy and desultory as much of it is, as averaging more than from four to five hours. With a studious boy, who works for distinction yet takes his full share of play, the time may fairly be reckoned, at Eton and Harrow, at about six hours honestly spent, and more when he is preparing for some special prize or examination; at Rugby, at about seven.

To insure, if possible, something like careful preparation of lessons, different expedients have been resorted to. But it is generally true that when a boy has reached an age at which he may fairly be deemed capable of reasonable steadiness and self-control, little stress can be laid on direct supervision as a means of making him learn his lessons; this can be done, if at all, by giving him full employment for his time, by insisting upon an accurate knowledge of his work and upon fair progress, by bringing the sense of duty, the desire of honor, and the fear of disgrace, effectively to bear upon his mind, and, in the last resort, by the dread of punishment.

The most important by far of the stimulants which a school is able to supply is furnished by the system of promotion. The systems actually in use are various. Seniority or length of standing, with or without a test examination—daily marks given for each lesson and exercise throughout the half year—and success in competitive examinations, yearly, half-yearly, or quarterly, are used, separately or in combination, at different schools. The first principle, with a test examination and a certain infusion of the competitive element, is adopted at Eton; the second at Winchester; the second and third combined at Harrow and Rugby. It may generally be observed that promotion on the ground of seniority alone, without even a test examination, must always be indefensible; and that between a test examination and a competitive examination, whether at a school or a university, there are some obvious differences. The former stimulates only by the discredit of failure, the latter enlists as an additional motive the honor of success; the standard in the first is really set by the lower candidates examined, and in the other by the higher; a test standard has thus a constant tendency to decline to a low point. A school, therefore, whose system of promotion is in practice mainly non-competitive, contents itself with a not very active stimulus for the sake of having one which can be extended over a very large surface, and runs the risk of having a somewhat low standard of scholarship. The advantages which may be purchased at this cost are not inconsiderable ones. As regards prizes, it is useful, no doubt, to have many for many kinds

of excellence, and to have prizes open to limited portions of a school as well as to the whole. But it is more important, as a general rule, that prizes should be held in high estimation than that they should be many in number; and it is so easy, on the one hand, by having too many of them, to defeat their object in calling out the highest excellence—so easy, on the other, by having too few, to restrict their operation unduly—that there are few subjects which require a greater exercise of care and judgment on the part of the authorities. The system of daily marking is a direct inducement to study and regular diligence; and periodical examinations are useful not only in compelling the boy to prove that he is master of what has been taught, but in cultivating the power of storing up, arranging, and producing knowledge, and of answering questions intelligibly on paper, which is not a universal accomplishment. The publication of school lists is a useful expedient, and at some schools especially has been turned to good account.

We are well aware, of course, that no system, however perfect, of promotion or of instruction, can do much to combat idleness unless the masters thoroughly and conscientiously discharge the hardest and most ungrateful part of their duty—the task of teaching those who are not disposed to learn. We are aware also that emulation has its disadvantages, and that as a stimulus to exertion it is morally far inferior to the sense of duty. We are not ignorant of that *vis inertia* which sheer inveterate idleness opposes to every kind of pressure, or of the difficulty of making, by any means, an idle boy diligent, on whom neither emulation nor duty has any sensible power. Neither do we forget that the cultivation of the intellect is not the sole end of education, nor the only object for which boys are sent to school. But a good system makes good teachers. Secondary motives are wanted for boys, whose habits are unformed and whose chief temptation is to waste time, as much at least as by men; and the desire of immediate success supplies in youth the place of those provident cares and far-reaching aims which take possession of the mind in maturer years. If there is a good deal of unconquerable idleness in every great school, there is much certainly that is not unconquerable; and whatever else a boy may have gained at school, he has not gained that which school education should give, if he leaves it with mental powers uncultivated, and without having acquired, in some degree, the habits of exertion, attention, self-denial, and self-control, which are necessary conditions of progress. A lad who makes no progress, or lags constantly behind his fellows, gets little good from his school, to which he is commonly himself a mischievous incumbrance; and it is of the highest importance that no boy should be admitted into any school who is unfit, from want of preparation, to enter upon its course of teaching among boys not much younger than himself, and that no boy should be allowed to remain at any school who does not make reasonable progress in it. The consequence of not exacting sufficient preparation is, that boys come at twelve or thirteen years of age with less knowledge than

they should have at nine or ten. The consequence of permitting them to remain at school without making progress is, that they either stagnate at the bottom of it, or are pushed up without exertion on their own part, are employed at work for which they are unfit, and are a drag and a dead weight on the boys more forward than themselves, with whom they are associated in doing it.

Results of the Instruction.—It is a far easier matter to ascertain how much is taught at the public schools than to determine how much is learned. It would appear, from the class-lists and lists of prize-men at the two Universities, that a fair proportion of classical honors at least is gained by the public schools, and that those who enter from the highest forms are, on the whole, well-taught classical scholars. But these notoriously form a small proportion of the boys who receive a public-school education. The great mass of such boys expose themselves to no tests which they can possibly avoid, and there are hardly any data for ascertaining how they acquitted themselves in the easy examinations which must be passed in order to obtain a degree. Of the number of undergraduates at Oxford about one-third, and at Cambridge rather more than one-fifth, come from the public schools, and nearly three-fourths of these are from Eton, Harrow, and Rugby. Of the boys educated at the schools who leave for the Universities, none of the nine schools sends as many as half its number—the average proportion is about one-third. As a rule, not only the best scholars at the Universities come from the public schools but also (and in this Eton has a certain preëminence) the idlest and most ignorant men. In the subject of mathematics, however, the public schools hold a position of marked inferiority to other places of education. The Commissioners draw the following conclusions as to the general results:—That boys who have capacity and industry enough to work for distinction, are, on the whole, well taught in the article of classical scholarship, but that even these occasionally show a want of accuracy in elementary knowledge, either from not having been well grounded, or from having been suffered to forget what they have learned;—That the average of classical knowledge among young men leaving school for college is low;—That in arithmetic and mathematics, in general information and in English, the average is lower still, but is improving;—That of the time spent at school by the generality of boys, much is absolutely thrown away as regards intellectual progress, either from ineffective teaching, from the continued teaching of subjects in which they can not advance, or from idleness, or from a combination of these causes;—That in arithmetic and mathematics the public schools are specially defective, and that this observation is not to be confined to any particular class of boys.

The number of public-school boys who enter the army is not large. Of 1,976 candidates for direct commissions within three years, 122 only had been at any of the schools, and of these but 20 failed—a proportion considerably below the average. Of 96 who passed, 38 came immedi-

ately from school. The scheme of examinations for direct commissions is simple and easy, and requires nothing that is beyond the reach of any boy of moderate industry and ordinary capacity. The public-school candidates for Sandhurst in the same time were 28 out of 875. Of the 18 who succeeded (also above the average proportion) 11 came direct from school. The qualifying examination for Woolwich required, before 1862, an amount of mathematical knowledge difficult of attainment for a boy educated at a public school, but then underwent some changes which make it easier. In three years previous to this change, 85 public-school candidates passed and 49 failed to pass, the totals of candidates being 545 and 689. Of the whole 84, two only went direct from the schools and these failed.

The Course and Subjects of Instruction proper for the Schools.—For the instruction of boys, especially when collected in a large school, it is material that there should be some one principal branch of study, invested with a recognized and, if possible, a traditional importance, to which the principal weight should be assigned, and the largest share of time and attention given. This is necessary in order to concentrate attention, to stimulate industry, to supply to the whole school a common ground of literary interest and common path of promotion. The study of the classical languages and literature at present occupies this position in all the great English schools and with the advantage of long possession—an advantage so great that we should certainly hesitate to advise the dethronement of it, even if we were prepared to recommend a successor.

It is not without reason, however, that the foremost place has been assigned to this study. Grammar is the logic of common speech, and there are few educated men who are not sensible of the advantages they gained as boys from the steady practice of composition and translation, and from their introduction to etymology. The study of literature is the study, not indeed of the physical, but of the intellectual and moral world we live in, and of the thoughts, lives, and characters of those men whose writings and whose memories succeeding generations have thought it worth while to preserve.

We are equally convinced that the best materials available to Englishmen for these studies are furnished by the languages and literature of Greece and Rome. From the regular structure of their languages, from their logical accuracy of expression, from the comparative ease with which their etymology is traced and reduced to general laws, from their severe canons of taste and style, from the very fact that they are "dead," and have been handed down to us directly from the periods of their highest perfection, comparatively untouched by the inevitable process of degeneration and decay, they are beyond all doubt the finest and most serviceable models we have for the study of language. As literature, they supply the most graceful and some of the noblest poetry, the finest eloquence, the deepest philosophy, the wisest historical writing; and these excellencies are such as to be appreciated keenly, though inadequately,

by young minds and to leave, as in fact they do, a lasting impression. Besides this, it is at least a reasonable opinion that this literature has had a powerful effect in molding and animating the statesmanship and political life of England. Nor is it to be forgotten that the whole civilization of modern Europe is really built upon the foundations laid two thousand years ago by two highly civilized nations on the shores of the Mediterranean; that their languages supply the key to our modern tongues; their poetry, history, philosophy, and law, to the poetry, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence, of modern times; that this key can seldom be acquired except in youth, and that the possession of it, as daily experience proves, and as those who have it not will most readily acknowledge, is very far from being merely a literary advantage.

It may be objected that this is only true provided the study is carried far enough, and that in a large proportion of cases it is not carried far enough. Of the young men who go to the Universities a great number never acquire so much Latin and Greek as would enable them to read the best classical authors intelligently and with pleasure, and more than half of those who leave school do not go to the Universities at all; among these the average of classical attainment is certainly lower still, and probably in nine cases out of ten they never, after they have quitted school, open a Greek or Latin book. It may be asked whether the mental discipline which such boys have received could not have been imparted to them at least as well by other studies, in which they might perhaps have made more sensible progress, and which would have furnished them at the same time with knowledge practically and immediately serviceable to them in the business of life.

This objection supposes that there should be different courses in each school for different capacities, (a question discussed farther on,) or that there should be but one course in which the classics should not enter or should hold a subordinate place. Now it is and ought to be the aim of the public schools to give an education of the best kind, not of the second best. Their great service consists in giving such an education to boys who have capacity and industry enough to take advantage of it, and they should not forego this office for the sake of bringing down their teaching to a level adjusted to the reach of dull, uncultivated, or listless minds. They are bound indeed to adjust it to the scope of ordinary intellects, for the vast majority of boys intrusted to them are not clever. But it is not necessary to be clever in order to gain solid advantage from the study of Latin and Greek; it is only necessary to be attentive, a condition equally indispensable to progress in any other study. And without doubt, a boy of ordinary capacity, and even a dull and backward boy who can be induced to take pains, is likely to profit more on the whole in a school where he has highly cultivated masters, and travels the same road with companions who are being highly educated, where there is a higher standard of taste and attainment, and the instruments and whole machinery of instruction are of the finest and most perfect kind, than he

would under a system sedulously lowered to the pitch of his own intellectual powers.

Yet the course should not be exclusively classical. It is the office of education not only to discipline some of the faculties, but to awaken, call out, and exercise them all so far as this can usefully be done in boyhood; to awaken tastes that may be developed in after life; to impart early habits of reading, thought, and observation; and to furnish the mind with such knowledge as is wanted at the outset of life. A young man is not educated—indeed, is not educated at all—who can not reason or observe or express himself easily and correctly, and who is unable to bear his part in cultivated society from ignorance of things which all who mix in it are assumed to be acquainted with. He is not well educated if his information is all shut up within one narrow circle, and if he has not been taught at least that beyond what he has been able to acquire lie great and varied fields of knowledge, some of which he may afterwards explore if he has inclination and opportunity to do so. The kind of knowledge which is necessary or useful, and the best way of exercising or disciplining the faculties, must vary, of course, with the habits and requirements of the age and of the society in which his life is to be spent. No system of instruction can be framed which will not require modification from time to time. The highest and most useful office of education is certainly to train and discipline; but it is not the only office. And whilst in the busy world too great a value perhaps is sometimes set upon the actual acquisition of knowledge and too little upon the mental discipline which enables men to acquire and turn it to the best account, there is also a tendency which is exactly the reverse of this, and which is among the besetting temptations of the ablest schoolmasters; and if very superficial men may be produced by one of these influences, very ignorant men are sometimes produced by the other.

The objections commonly made to any extension of the old course of study are of a more or less practical character. It is said that many things which ought to be learned ought not to be learned at school, and are best acquired before going thither or after leaving it; that they cannot be imparted there effectively nor without injury to more important studies, without dissipating the attention and overloading the mind; that the capacity for learning which an average boy possesses is, after all, very limited, and his capacity for forgetting very great; that ability is rare and industry not very common; that if the apparent results are small, they do not quite represent the real benefit received; and that the actual results, such as they are, are the best which in practice it is possible to obtain.

There is truth here, yet these arguments have in fact been used against all the improvements that have been already introduced and with proud success. It is quite true that much less can, generally speaking, be mastered and retained by a young mind than theorists might suppose; and true that it is not easy to win steady attention from a high-spirited

English lad, who has the restless activity and love of play that belong to youth and health; who, like his elders, thinks somewhat slowly, and does not express himself readily, and to whom mental effort is troublesome. But these are difficulties which it is the business of the schoolmaster to contend with, and which careful and skillful teaching may, to some extent, overcome. If a youth, after four or five years spent at school, quits it at nineteen, unable to construe an easy bit of Latin or Greek without the help of a dictionary, or to write Latin grammatically, almost ignorant of geography and of the history of his own country, unacquainted with any modern language but his own, and hardly competent to write English correctly, to do a simple sum, or stumble through an easy proposition in Euclid, a total stranger to the laws which govern the physical world and to its structure, with an eye and hand unpracticed in drawing, and without knowing a note of music, with an uncultivated mind and no taste for reading or observation, his intellectual education must certainly be accounted a failure, though there may be no fault to find with his principles, character, or manners; yet this is much more commonly than it ought to be the product of English public-school education.

It is true also that besides what is learned at school by the boy, much may and ought to be acquired by the child, and much more by the man. But that boys come very ill prepared to school is the general complaint, and the evil seems to be on the increase. On the other hand, there are many men who do not learn much after they leave school, because few men read much, for want of inclination or leisure. The schools have it in their power to remedy, to a certain extent, the former of these deficiencies by a stricter examination on entrance; and it should be their aim to at least diminish the latter by opening the minds of their scholars and implanting tastes which are now wanting. But the chances of leisure after entrance into active life must always be precarious. The school has absolute possession of the boy during four or five years, the most valuable years of pupilage, the time when the powers of apprehension and memory are brightest, when the faculty of observation is quick and lively, and he is forming his acquaintance with the various objects of knowledge. Something surely may be done during that time in the way not of training alone, but of positive acquisition, and the school is responsible for turning it to the best account.

The extension of the present course, as proposed, is but very moderate. The importance of arithmetic and mathematics is already recognized, and it is only necessary that they should be taught more effectively. The course should include arithmetic, so taught as to make every boy thoroughly familiar with it, and the elements of geometry, algebra, and plane trigonometry. In the case of the more advanced students, it should also comprise an introduction to applied mathematics. All the boys at every school should, in some part at least of their passage through it, learn either French or German. Natural science is, with slight exceptions,

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practically excluded from the education of the higher classes in England and education is, in this respect, narrower than it was three centuries ago. This exclusion is a great practical evil, narrowing unduly and injuriously the mental training of the young, and the knowledge, interests, and pursuits of men in maturer life. For all educated men an early introduction to natural science is desirable, if not necessary, and the value of the study, as a means of opening the mind and disciplining the faculties, is recognized by all who have taken the trouble to acquire it. It quickens and cultivates directly the faculty of observation, which in very many persons lies almost dormant through life, the power of accurate and rapid generalization, and the mental habit of method and arrangement; it accustoms young persons to trace the sequence of cause and effect; it familiarizes them with a kind of training which interests them, and which they can promptly comprehend; and it is perhaps the best corrective for that indolence which is the vice of half-awakened minds, and which shrinks from any exertion which is not, like an effort of memory, merely mechanical. The teaching must necessarily be elementary, and this thoroughly understood, as far as it goes, will satisfy the purposes in view. An hour or two in the week of class teaching, properly seconded, will be found to produce substantial fruits. Whether the sciences should be taught in their logical order, at what age or point of intellectual progress any part of the subject should be taken up, in what manner it should be taught, and how far pursued, are questions to be settled by experience, and by the inquiries and deliberate judgment of the various Governing Bodies. Every boy should learn either music or drawing during a part at least of his stay at school. Positive inaptitude for the education of the ear and voice, or for that of the hand and eye, is rare; and these accomplishments are useful as instruments of training and valuable possessions in after life. Greater attention should be paid to history and geography than they now receive. A taste for history may be gained at school; the habit of reading intelligently should certainly be acquired then, and few books can be intelligently read without some knowledge of history, and no history without geography. More attention should also be given to English composition and orthography. A command of pure grammatical English is not necessarily gained by construing Latin and Greek, though the study of the classical languages is, or rather may be made, an instrument of the highest value for that purpose.

It may be objected that there is not time for such a course of study as this. But we are persuaded that by effective teaching time can be found for these things without encroaching on the hours of play; and that room may be made for them, by taking trouble, in the head of any ordinary boy. Of the time spent at school by nine boys out of ten, much is wasted which it is quite possible to economize. Time is economized by increasing attention; attention is sharpened and kept alive by a judicious change of work. A boy can attend without flagging to what

interests him, and what he attends to he can generally retain; but without real attention there can be no progress, and without progress, no intellectual discipline worth the name. The great difficulty of a public school is simple idleness, which is defended by numbers, and entrenched behind the system and traditions of the place, and against which the Master, if he be active, wages a more or less unequal war.

Time and Relative Value to be assigned to different Branches.—It is essential that every part of the regular course of study should have assigned to it a due proportion of the whole time given to study. Where all the subjects are pursued together—assuming that the lessons take about an hour each, and that they will be such as to demand for preparation, in the case of the classics, ten additional hours, and in those of modern languages and natural science respectively, at least two additional hours in the week, and that composition will demand about five hours—it is proposed that eleven hours be given to classics, with history and divinity; three hours to arithmetic and mathematics; and two hours each to the modern languages, natural science, and music or drawing.

It is also essential that every branch should be encouraged by the stimulus of reward and punishment; that every non-classical subject (except music and drawing) in that part of the school where it is compulsory should effect promotion; that a scale of marks should be settled upon for this purpose, and moreover, that the non-classical studies should be encouraged by prizes appropriated to them respectively. The relative weights proposed to be assigned to the classics, with history and divinity, is not less than $\frac{1}{2}$ nor more than $\frac{2}{3}$ —to each of the three non-classical subjects, not less than $\frac{1}{3}$ nor more than $\frac{2}{3}$ —to the three non-classical subjects combined, $\frac{2}{3}$.

Experiment of a separate Modern Department.—Careful consideration is due to the question of the desirableness of introducing into the public schools, side by side with their classical organization, a distinct department for the prosecution of what are sometimes called modern, and sometime practical, studies, into which boys should be allowed to pass, either immediately upon their admission to the school or after having made a certain amount of progress in it, and in which they should be instructed principally in modern languages, mathematics, natural science, history, geography, and other branches of an English education, classical teaching being made subordinate and not of primary importance.

It is frequently said that there are boys who have no natural aptitude for classical studies, and upon whom classical teaching is consequently thrown away, but who would take in and profit by a thoroughly good system of practical education; that there are others whose destinations in life render it important that they should receive special instruction in subjects which can not be adequately taught as mere adjuncts to a classical course; and that it is hard that such boys should be condemned either to waste their time on uncongenial and unsuitable pursuits, or to forego altogether the benefits of a public-school career. It would not be

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difficult to find arguments in favor of making special provision for these two classes of boys. We are not indeed disposed to attach great weight to the argument from inaptitude, for, though the capacities of boys for classical study must vary, as they do for other kinds of study, we believe that under a judicious system of teaching, administered by a sufficient number of competent masters, with a due regard to the individual characters of their pupils, almost any boy may attain such an amount of proficiency in the classics as can not fail to be of material advantage to him. The large proportion of failures, which we can not but recognize, is mainly to be attributed to the system under which idle and inferior boys are allowed to do their work in a slovenly and inefficient manner, or even to shelter themselves from the necessity of working at all. Still there are many boys who could not by any process of teaching be made superior scholars, and upon whom the high polish of which others are susceptible would be thrown away; as there are, on the other hand, many who have peculiar capabilities for scientific studies, to whom it would be of the greatest advantage to receive a higher amount of scientific instruction than would be desirable for the generality of their school-fellows, and it may fairly be urged that it would be of advantage for such boys to be allowed to drop some portion of their classical, in order to devote more time to other work. So too with regard to those boys who are said to require special preparation for their future career in life. While we strongly deprecate the idea of reducing the education of our public schools to a standard based merely upon calculations of direct and immediate utility, and should regard it as a great misfortune if those who direct them were to aim at the mere imparting of practical knowledge, or the mere training of their pupils for competitive examinations, we can not close our eyes to the fact that parents who find their sons left in total ignorance of matters which will be important to them in after life, or who perceive that they are unable to compete successfully for the professional and other prizes which are open to their contemporaries, are tempted to take the solution of the question between classical and practical education into their own hands, by removing their sons at an early age from the public school and placing them under the far less satisfactory care of a private tutor.

In France and in Germany provision is made for giving such boys as these an entirely distinct education. In France the pupils in the *lycées* are divided into three classes; they all pass through the elementary and grammar divisions, but when they reach the highest division, they have to elect between the *section littéraire* and the *section scientifique*, it being necessary for those who seek a degree in letters or law to attach themselves to the former, and for those who seek one in science or medicine to join the latter. Boys destined for commerce or industrial professions also usually enter the latter. Their divergence in the course of education is known by the term *bifurcation*. The period of separate instruction in these two sections lasts for three years, during which time,

however, a certain amount of inter-communication takes place between them, the pupils of the *section littéraire* attending lectures on geometry, physics, chemistry, and natural history, and those of the *section scientifique* attending lectures on French, Latin, history, and geography. In the fourth year they all unite in the study of logic and of the application of the laws of thought and reasoning.

In Germany the business of preparing boys for the Universities is left to the *Gymnasien*, and that of educating them for other careers is assigned to the *Real-schulen*, which are wholly distinct and separate establishments. The French principle, therefore, of keeping the pupils together while they are pursuing different lines of study, is in theory reversed in Prussia. The system of bifurcation is, however, admitted into a few of the *Gymnasien*, by the introduction, at a certain point in the school, of parallel classes, in which the instruction is the same as in the corresponding classes of the *Real-schulen*; and it is stated that the *Gymnasien* are preferred by many to the *Real-schulen* even for boys destined for commercial and industrial pursuits.

In England several attempts have of late years been made to ingraft a modern department upon a classical school and to conduct it upon distinct principles. Cheltenham College consists, in fact, of two schools, into which boys enter separately, one of them a very efficient and successful classical school of the ordinary type, the other a school in which the boys learn comparatively little Latin and no Greek, but natural science is taught and great stress is laid on modern languages. The number of boys in the modern department is 276, nearly equaling the number in the classical. Marlborough has likewise its modern department, into which, however, boys do not enter till they have reached a certain point in the school, (the sixth out of thirteen divisions into which it is arranged,) and which, in 1862, contained 62 boys, or somewhat more than one-seventh of the school, taught by three masters. At Wellington College, in every form from about the middle of the school to the top, there are a certain number of boys who do less classics and more modern work than the rest of the form, and these are grouped in separate divisions, called the mathematical divisions. Few here among the boys, except those who are backward or to leave the school young, enter the mathematical divisions at the earliest point; the "cleverer moderns" continuing their Greek until they have reached the upper forms, with a view to make it available in examinations. The whole number in the mathematical divisions in 1862 was 28, a little more than 10 per cent. of the school. The City of London School is a great day-school in the heart of London, having little connection with the Universities, and educating, apparently, with great success, a very large proportion of boys who are not intended for Oxford or Cambridge. At the same time the classical and mathematical education given there is so good that of those who do go to the Universities nearly all distinguish themselves. It is therefore somewhat remarkable that, although an opportunity is afforded to the

boys of branching off at a certain stage in their career into a class where they are not required to learn Greek, very few are found to avail themselves of it. The school at King's College, London, containing more than 400 boys, appears to be organized upon the same principle as Cheltenham, except that the link of connection between the two divisions is slighter. The classical and modern departments, in point of numbers, are nearly equal.

The object of these systems is twofold:—1. To prepare boys for definite examinations in which they would not succeed if they competed direct from the classical school. The chief of these are the examinations for Woolwich and Sandhurst, which mainly govern the reading of the higher classes in the modern department at Cheltenham, and with a result which is beyond doubt successful. Yet it appears that at Marlborough and Cheltenham—both of them schools eminently successful at the Universities—a modern department is not needed to enable a good classical scholar to succeed in the Woolwich examination as it is now conducted, and boys could be sent in for Woolwich with almost equal advantage from either department. What it does is to enable boys, who are not good classical scholars, to succeed in that examination by obtaining high marks in other subjects—but its utility is limited because there are, in fact, few boys of ordinary abilities who can not, by taking pains, become fair scholars. What is true of the Woolwich examination is true, in a still greater degree, of others which are less hard and less special in their character. The main object of all competitive examinations is to ascertain which of the candidates is the ablest and most industrious and has profited most by the education he has received, and those who conduct them are no doubt alive to the importance of so arranging their details as to give the boys who have had the best general education the advantage over those who have been specially prepared in particular subjects with a view to obtain a large number of marks. The main studies of the public schools being classical, it is obvious that unless a due amount of weight is given to the classics in the Woolwich examinations, boys from those schools will not stand a fair chance in the competition. On the other hand, as it is of importance that the examinations should comprise other subjects besides classics, it is also obvious that unless the public schools provide a due amount of instruction in those other subjects, the candidates whom they send up must compete at a disadvantage. It is certain that there has hitherto been a want of adjustment between the Woolwich standard and the teaching of the public schools. The fault lies chiefly, though not wholly, in the deficiencies in the course of education pursued at the latter; and when those deficiencies have been supplied, the difficulty which is now complained of will speedily disappear.

2. The second object is to attempt to solve, in some degree, the question, How far is it possible to give a really good public-school education on any other basis than that of instruction in the dead languages? So far as the experiment has yet been tried it is the generally expressed

opinion of those engaged in it that the result is so far successful as to justify much confidence in its value, and though a system of mixed classical and modern study may be deemed preferable, yet a thoroughly sound education may be given upon the basis of modern studies and mathematics, excluding classics; but that the practical difficulties which lie in the way are exceedingly great. It is difficult to find men thoroughly competent to teach modern languages as they ought to be taught, as the basis of literary study. There are not the well annotated books, the carefully arranged grammars, the accepted curriculum of authors, which classical study has to offer to them who pursue it. From the number of different lines along which it is thought necessary to conduct the students, there are difficulties in organizing classes and in apportioning and duly limiting the hours of work, and there is also some obvious difficulty in administering a modern department without breaking up the unity of the school.

The advisability of establishing at the older public schools a system resembling either of those which exist at Marlborough and Cheltenham does not rest therefore upon grounds solidly established by experience, and the risks and difficulties of the experiment, which are felt in the newly established schools, would be felt much more if the attempt were made to ingraft modern departments on the old classical schools. They are, and they still ought to be, essentially classical schools; yet at the same time, the general course of study in all these schools should be broader than it now is and should also be more elastic. The course should be extended by the addition of new subjects, as already proposed; and provision ought to be made for the discontinuance, in certain cases, of certain portions of study, in order to enable boys to pursue other portions farther than the usual course allows. The Governing Body should of course take care so to regulate the proportion between the work to be abandoned and the work to be substituted for it, as to obviate the risk of idle boys seeking permission to discontinue difficult lessons and to take up easy ones. No discontinuance should be permitted until the boy has reached such a position in the school as to render it certain that he has had full and fair opportunity for testing his powers in all the branches of study comprised in the course. It should not be allowed unless upon the application of the parents as well as of the boy; nor unless the Head Master is satisfied that there are good grounds for the request, and that the boy's character and abilities are such as to render it desirable that it should be granted. The work to be taken up should be fully equal in its demands upon the boy's time and attention with that which is to be dropped, and it should be enforced with the same strictness and encouraged with the same care as the ordinary work of the school. Experience will show how far such a system may advantageously be carried, what form may most conveniently be given to it, and what changes it may require.

Deficient Preparation. Home Influence.—Strong complaints, which

are by no means without foundation, are made of the ill-prepared and ignorant state in which boys are very frequently sent to school, and this evil is upon the increase, rather than the reverse. There are many boys whose education can hardly be said to have begun till they enter, at the age of twelve or thirteen, or even later, a school containing several hundreds, where there can be comparatively little of that individual teaching which a very backward boy requires. The consequence is that the schools are impeded and embarrassed by the necessity of giving elementary instruction which should have been given earlier and elsewhere. In some degree this evil must be ascribed to the deficiencies of the preparatory schools—but the fault rests chiefly with the parents. It is recommended that at every school there be an entrance examination, which shall not be merely nominal and the standard of which shall be graduated according to the age of the candidate. When it is known that the test is established, and known that it will be adhered to, parents will have themselves only to blame if their sons are deprived of the advantages of a public-school education for want of qualifications which might have been secured by proper and timely care.

Of all the incitements to diligence and good conduct which act upon the mind of a school-boy, the most powerful, generally speaking, is the wish to satisfy his parents; and his view of duty when at school will always depend very much on the light in which he feels that it is regarded at home. He knows very well the estimation in which industry is held by his parents. If their real object in sending him to a public school is merely or chiefly that he should make advantageous acquaintances and gain knowledge of the world, this is likely to be no secret to him, and the home influence, which ought to be the Master's most efficacious auxiliary, becomes in such cases the greatest obstacle to progress.

Physical Training. Games, &c.—The bodily training which gives health and activity to the frame is imparted at English schools, not by the gymnastic exercises which are employed for that end on the Continent, but by athletic games, which, while they serve this purpose well, serve other purposes besides. Pursued as a recreation and voluntarily, they are pursued with all the eagerness which boyhood throws into its amusements; and they implant the habit, which does not cease with boyhood, of seeking recreation in hardy and vigorous exercise. The cricket and football fields, however, are not merely places of exercise and amusement; they help to form some of the most valuable social qualities and manly virtues, and they hold, like the class-room and the boarding-house, a distinct and important place in public-school education. Their importance is fully recognized. Ample time is given for them, and they have ample encouragement in general from the authorities of the schools. It is possible, indeed, to carry this too far and at some schools this may be the case; it is carried too far if cricket matches are multiplied till they engross almost all the interests and much of the time of the boys during an important part of the year; yet it is certainly carried too far

if boys are encouraged to regard play as on the same level with work, or to imagine that they can make amends for neglecting their duty by the most industrious pursuit of pleasure. The importance which the boys themselves attach to games is somewhat greater, perhaps, than might reasonably be desired, but within moderate limits it is highly useful. It is the best corrective of the temptation to overstudy which acts upon a clever and ambitious boy, and of the temptation to saunter away time which besets an indolent one.

Swimming is taught at Eton, Westminster, and Shrewsbury. The desire to go on the river, which no boy is allowed to do till he has shown himself able to swim, operates at these schools as a sufficient inducement with a large number of boys. At Eton almost every boy learns to swim even if he does not row. It is much to be wished that every boy who goes to school should acquire the art.

Rifle-corps exist at Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury. The number of members fluctuates and appears to be kept up chiefly by the amusement of target-shooting, without which they would probably have died away. To make the drill in any manner compulsory would be fatal to such interest as the boys now take in it. Apart from such value as it possesses of fitting boys to enter the defensive force of the country, it is also of some use as affording to boys who do not care for cricket and do not row, a healthy and social employment for their leisure—in giving them, in short, something to do. It is entitled to higher consideration than a mere pastime and the school authorities are advised to give it all practicable and suitable encouragement.

Discipline. Monitorial System. Flagging.—In all the public schools, excepting such as are virtually day-schools, discipline and order are maintained partly by the masters, partly by the boys themselves. The power exerted for this purpose by boys over their school-fellows is, generally speaking, recognized by the masters, and regulated and controlled by custom and opinion. The grounds on which the monitorial system rests appear to be these. Small breaches of discipline and acts of petty oppression can not be effectually restrained by the unaided efforts of the masters without constant and minute interference and a supervision amounting to espionage, and the boys submit in these matters more cheerfully to a government administered by themselves; in every large school some boys will always possess authority over the rest, and it is desirable that their authority should not be that of mere physical strength, which is tyranny, nor that of mere personal influence, which may be of an inferior kind, but should belong to boys fitted by age, character, and position to take the highest place in the school; that it should be attended by an acknowledged responsibility, and controlled by established rules. On these grounds and in some degree from the force of tradition and habit, the system where it exists is, in general, much cherished and highly valued by both masters and boys, and is considered by some witnesses of great judgment and experience as indispensable to the efficient management of a large school.

There are objections, however, to any delegation, express or tacit, to school-boys, of authority to inflict punishment on their school-fellows. There is a risk lest it should be abused from defect of temper or judgment; lest it should make those intrusted with it imperious or tyrannical, or priggish and self-sufficient; lest boys, whose character makes them ill qualified to govern others, should be oppressed and discouraged by a responsibility to which they feel themselves unequal; and lest, if it should fall into unfit hands, it should become an instrument of positive evil. There is some risk also lest the Masters should, more than is safe or right, leave the discipline of the school to take care of itself, and incongruities, the correction of which forms part of their own duty, to be checked—ineffectually, perhaps, or perhaps not checked at all—by the senior boys. The power of punishment, when intrusted to boys, should be very carefully guarded, and the liberty of appeal to the Head Master should be always kept open, and it should be thoroughly understood that boys may avail themselves of that liberty without discredit and without exposing themselves to ill-usage. It is believed, however, that cases of abuse have been exceptional, and that by proper precautions they may be prevented from interfering seriously with the beneficial working of the system.

The system appears to have taken root very early in English schools. At Harrow and Rugby it seems to have been strengthened rather than impaired by time; at Eton, on the contrary, though it nominally survives, it has in practice almost ceased to exist except among the "collegers," and the opinion that it is unnecessary and undesirable is as strong at Eton, as the opposite opinion is at Harrow, Rugby, and Winchester. The case of Eton, indeed, shows that it is quite possible, under certain conditions, to administer a very great school without any actual delegation of authority to the boys themselves, yet without disorder, bullying, or gross laxity of discipline. How far it would be practicable at other schools, the experience of Eton does not determine. With respect to the principle itself of the monitorial system, we do not hesitate to express our conviction that it has borne excellent fruits, and done most valuable service to education. It has largely assisted to create and keep alive a high and sound tone of feeling and opinion, has promoted independence and manliness of character, and has rendered possible that combination of ample liberty with order and discipline which is among the best characteristics of our great English schools.

Closely allied to this subject is that of flogging, and in regard to this practice and to determine whether it is productive of bodily ill-usage, or is likely to be injurious to character, or is oppressive or troublesome to younger boys by encroaching on their hours of study or play, examinations were made of Masters, whose duty it is to know how it works, and of young men who have had experience of it both as fags and fag-masters, and of little boys from the foundation schools, where from the force of usage and tradition, flogging may reasonably be expected to exist in a

more systematic shape than elsewhere, and to retain more of its old roughness and severity.

The right to fag belongs at every school to a portion of the senior boys; the liability to be fagged attaches commonly to a portion only of the juniors. The duties of a fag are at some schools much lighter and more limited than at others; in their largest extent they embrace some special personal services to the boy to whom the fag is assigned, and some general services which he may be called on to render to the whole body of the masters, with "fielding," when required, at cricket, and compulsory attendance at some other games. Some of the services are such as would at the present day be performed by servants, had not the custom grown up of allowing them to be performed by fags. In some instances the compulsory attendance at games, which is far from being always an evil, is so enforced as to trench upon the fag's opportunities for play. But on the whole, and with some exceptions, we are satisfied that fagging, mitigated as it has been, and that considerably, by the altered habits and manners of the present day, is not degrading to the juniors, is not enforced tyrannically, and makes no exorbitant demand upon their time, and that it has no injurious effect upon the character of the seniors. The relation of master and fag is generally friendly, and to a certain though perhaps a slight extent one of patronage and protection, and it sometimes gives rise to lasting intimacies. It is an institution created by the boys themselves in the exercise of the liberty allowed to them, and is popular with them; and it is tacitly sanctioned by the Masters, who have seen the tyranny of superior strength tempered and restrained in this way by rule and custom till it has practically ceased to be a tyranny at all. It is only recommended that the practice be watched; that fags should be relieved from menial service, and that care should be taken that neither their time for lessons nor their time for play be unduly encroached upon.

The relation between masters and boys is closer and more friendly than it used to be, owing in some measure, probably, to the development of the tutorial system. Corporal punishment has at the same time diminished; flogging, which twenty or thirty years ago was resorted to as a matter of course for the most trifling offenses, is now in general used sparingly and applied only to serious ones. More attention is paid to religious teaching and more reliance placed on the sense of duty.

On the general results of public-school education as an instrument for the training of character we can speak with much confidence. Like most English institutions—for it deserves to rank among English institutions—it is not framed upon a preconceived plan, but has grown up gradually, and it has been by degrees that methods of discipline and internal government have been worked out by the Masters and by the boys, and that channels of influence have been discovered and turned to account. The magnitude and freedom of these schools make each of them, for a boy of from twelve to eighteen, a little world, calculated to give his character an education of the same kind it is destined afterwards to un-

dergo in the great world of business and society. The liberty, however, which is suited for a boy is a liberty regulated by definite restraints; and his world, the chief temptations of which arise from thoughtlessness, must be a world pervaded by powerful disciplinary influences, and in which rewards as well as punishments are both prompt and certain. The principle of governing boys mainly through their own sense of what is right and honorable is undoubtedly the only true principle; but it requires much watchfulness, and a firm, temperate, and judicious administration, to keep up the tone and standard of opinion, which are very liable to fluctuate, and the decline of which speedily turns a good school into a bad one. This system is one which is adapted for boys and not for children, and which should not be entered upon, as a general rule, till the age of childhood is past; neither perhaps is it universally wholesome for boys of every temperament and character, though we believe the cases to which it is unsuited are not very numerous. But we are satisfied, on the whole, both that it has been eminently successful, and that it has been greatly improved during the last thirty or forty years, partly by causes of a general kind, partly by the personal influence and exertion of Dr. Arnold and other great schoolmasters.

Religious Teaching and Influences.—At every school the boys are instructed in Scripture history and those who are advanced enough, in the Greek Testament. Time is given to religious teaching on Sundays, and to relieve them from the temptation to do other work upon that day, the first lesson at least on Monday morning is uniformly on a religious subject. At Westminster the whole forenoon of Monday is given to lessons on religious subjects, and at Winchester the Head Master reads the Greek Testament with his own classes on every morning. Questions testing Scriptural knowledge enter into the school examinations, and appear to have a fair amount of weight generally assigned to them. There is apparently a general feeling that religious instruction, though a matter eminently requiring to be handled with judgment and caution, should not be confined to the mere learning by heart of passages of Scripture and facts of sacred history, nor to the critical study of the Greek text of the New Testament, and an anxiety that the time given to this subject should not be employed listlessly nor mechanically.

The boys appear, generally speaking, to be very carefully prepared for confirmation and to receive this rite with becoming seriousness. Their attendance at the Holy Communion is almost universally left to their own sense of religious duty, and the proportion who attend from those who have been confirmed, is everywhere considerable. It is the general custom to have prayers in the boarding-houses—and we have the satisfaction of believing not only that boys are not disturbed or ridiculed whilst saying their private prayers, but that the omission to do this is the exception—probably a rare exception—not the rule. Yet it is at home even more than at school (because at home it may be done earlier and more effectually than at school) that religious motives and feelings should be implanted and a knowledge of the truths of religion acquired.

Financial Condition. Fees and Charges, &c.—The expenses of these schools consist chiefly in the maintenance, repair, and enlargement of the necessary buildings and accommodations, the sustenance of foundation scholars, and the support of the staff of teachers; and they are defrayed principally from payments made out of the foundation revenues, and from the charges for board and instruction. The principle apparently recognized as the measure of the school charges, though not perhaps consistently observed in practice, is that of raising, not as much money as parents can be induced to pay, but as much as will maintain an adequate staff of highly qualified teachers, beside defraying other expenses. The amount derived from the foundation is everywhere small compared with what is received from the parents of non-foundations. The charges for board are sometimes separate from, but commonly blended with those for instruction; the charge for instruction has been added to, as fresh subjects or modes of teaching have been introduced, and is often broken into separate sums, to which different teachers are entitled. The total receipts of a Master who has a boarding-house are generally adequate, and often very ample, while others have often not sufficient for a fair remuneration. The gross receipts of the Head Masters have, from increase of numbers, become in some cases extremely large, subject to miscellaneous deductions and charges, more or less discretionary and ill-defined, while his net income does not always bear a just proportion to either the numbers or wealth of the school. The subject of the charges made to parents and the emoluments of the Masters needs revision, that both may be put upon a more simple and equitable footing. At several of the schools the Assistant Masters as a Body, and in some cases the Head Masters, are underpaid. The total emoluments of the five Masters, forming the classical and mathematical staff at Shrewsbury, hardly amount altogether to the annual salary of a young classical assistant at Eton, and this is nearly half as much again as the whole income of the Head Master of Westminster or the Charter-house. It has been customary for the Head Master to engage such assistants as he required and to make his own terms with them and to fix the amount of their emoluments—usually consisting of sums paid out of his own pocket, such shares as he might assign to them of the tuition fees, and a portion of the profits of boarding-houses which they had his permission to open—while he reserved to himself such proportion of the school charges as he thought fit. While the Head Master should retain the power of appointing and dismissing his subordinates, it is deemed advisable that the power and responsibility of fixing their emoluments and his own should be held by the Governing Body.

Domestic and Sanitary Arrangements.—The school buildings themselves, even at the wealthier schools, are by no means all that could be desired. There is not unfrequently a want of suitable class-rooms, though this want is being gradually supplied. In the boys' bed-rooms there appears generally, with some exceptions, to be no want of space,

sir, and appliances for cleanliness and comfort. At Eton it is usual for each boy to have a room to himself, in which he sleeps at night and sits by day, his small bedstead being folded up during the daytime. The rooms at Harrow contain sometimes one bed, sometimes two to five, the boys using the rooms by day as studies. At Rugby from two to sixteen boys sleep in a room, but every boy has assigned him a little study or a portion of one, no study holding more than three. The system of large bedrooms is generally in use at the other schools, the privilege of a study being given to a limited number of the upper boys. At each school the Masters are satisfied with the system actually adopted there, and the boys seem to be satisfied with it likewise. Each system has in fact its advantages.

The boarding-houses are as a rule kept by the Masters only. At Eton, however, nine of the thirty houses are still in the hands of the "dames." The scale of diet does not differ greatly at the different schools, though at some the boys have meat once and at some twice a day; and the boys seem to be generally satisfied with the quantity and quality of their food. Excellent and comfortable sanatoria, for the reception of boys so unwell as to require special care, different food, and quiet, have been built at Eton and Rugby. The boarding-houses which have been newly built are very carefully constructed and the internal arrangements of the old ones have in many instances been much improved. On the whole it may be said that as respects their domestic and sanitary arrangements, and the appliances for the health and comfort of the boys, these schools have fairly kept pace with the general advance which has been made in this matter within the last quarter of a century. But it is chiefly, no doubt, to the habits of hardy exercise which are encouraged everywhere that we have to attribute the fact that sickness appears to be rare everywhere and the general health of the boys to be good.

Holidays.—Except in two London schools, the whole time during which boys are at home, whether they go home twice or three times in the year, varies only from 14 to 16 weeks. The dates of the holidays differ materially in the different schools.

The London Schools.—Four of these schools, Westminster, the Charterhouse, St. Paul's, and Merchant Taylors', are situated in the metropolis. Their number of pupils is 690, of whom 188 are boarders. In point of endowment, in the provision made for instruction, and in the results of the teaching, these schools will bear comparison with any of the rest. In one respect, however, they stand at an obvious disadvantage. It is impossible for them to offer the same facilities for recreation and exercise as the schools situated in the country. Indeed, the boys at St. Paul's and Merchant Taylors' have no play-grounds at all. Again, the high value of land throws a great difficulty in the way of providing for the additional accommodation which boys now require and compels the managers to restrict their improvements within a narrow compass. It is generally thought, too, that a London school can not be so healthy as

one in the country, though the evidence does not appear to confirm this view. Owing to these causes the popularity of the London schools as boarding-schools has declined, and the Westminster and Charter-house schools, which are especially boarding-schools, have felt the adverse influences most strongly. It has been proposed to remove these institutions into the country, and it might be done with great advantage in many respects, but there are financial and other difficulties which may prevent the realization of the idea.

Summary of General Recommendations.

I. The Governing Bodies of the several colleges and schools should be reformed, so far as may be necessary, in order to render them thoroughly suitable and efficient for the purposes and duties which they are designed to fulfill.

II. The subsisting statutes and laws of the several colleges and schools, by which they respectively are, or legally ought to be, governed, should be revised under competent authority; rules and obligations which it is inexpedient to retain should be abrogated; new regulations should be introduced where they are required; and the Governing Bodies of each college and school should be empowered, where they do not already possess the power, to amend its statutes from time to time. The approval of some superior authority, such as the Queen in Council or the Visitor, may be required where the character of the foundation renders this desirable.

III. The Governing Body of each college and school should have the general management of the property and endowments of the college and school. They should have the appointment and dismissal of the Head Master, and should retain, where they now possess them, the same powers in respect of the second Master. They should be authorized to make general regulations for the government and administration of the whole school, including both foundation boys and boys not on the foundation, except in matters specially reserved to the Head Master. They should be especially empowered and charged to make such regulations as may from time to time be required on the following subjects:—

- a. The terms of admission and the number of the school.
- b. The general treatment of the foundation boys.
- c. Boarding-houses; the rates of charge for boarding, the conditions on which leave to keep a boarding-house should be given, and any other matters which may appear to need regulation under this head.
- d. Fees and charges of all kinds, and the application of money to be derived from these sources.
- e. Attendance at divine service; chapel services and sermons, where the school possesses a chapel of its own.
- f. The sanitary condition of the school, and of all places connected with it.
- g. The times and length of the holidays.
- h. The introduction of new branches of study, and the suppression of old ones, and the relative importance to be assigned to each branch of study.

It should be incumbent, however, on the Governing Body, before making regulations upon any of these subjects, or upon any subject affecting the management or instruction of the school, not only to consider attentively any representations which the Head Master may address to them, but to consult him in such a manner as to give ample opportunity for the expression of his views.

IV. The Governing Body should hold stated general meetings, one at least half-yearly, and special meetings when required. Provision should be made for summoning special meetings. Sufficient notice of every special meeting should be given to every member, and a notice sent of all business to be transacted. Minutes should be kept of the proceedings of every stated and special meeting. If any member absents himself from three-fourths of all the meetings in any two successive years, his office should be deemed vacant and his place filled up. The Governing Body should be empowered to defray out of the school fund the expenses of the meetings, including the traveling expenses of the governors attending them.

V. The Head Masters should have the uncontrolled power of selecting and dismissing assistant masters; of regulating the arrangement of the school in classes or divisions, the hours of school work, and the holidays and half-holidays during the school time; of appointing and changing the books and editions of books to be used in the school, and the course and method of study, (subject to all the regulations made by the Governing Body as to the introduction, suppression, or relative weight of studies;) of maintaining discipline, prescribing bounds, and laying down other rules for the government of the boys; of administering punishment, and of expulsion.

VI. The assistant masters, or a selected number of them representing the whole body, should meet on fixed days, not less often than once a month, under the title of a School Council, to consider and discuss any matter which may be brought before them by the Head Master, or any member of the Council, concerning the teaching or discipline of the school. The Head Master should preside, if present. The Council should be entitled to advise the Head Master, but not to bind or control him in any way, and should have the right of addressing the Governing Body whenever a majority of the whole Council may think fit. When the Council does not embrace the whole body of the assistants, the classical and mathematical masters and the teachers of modern languages and natural science respectively should be duly represented in it.

VII. In the selection of the Head Master and of the other masters, the field of choice should in no case be confined, either by rule or by usage equivalent to a rule, to persons educated at the school.

VIII. The classical languages and literature should continue to hold the principal place in the course of study.

IX. In addition to the study of the classics and to religious teaching, every boy who passes through the school should receive instruction in arithmetic and mathematics; in one modern language at least, which should be either French or German; in some one branch at least of natural sciences, and in either drawing or music. Care should also be taken to insure that the boys acquire a good general knowledge of geography and of ancient history, some acquaintance with modern history, and a command of pure grammatical English.

X. The ordinary arithmetical and mathematical course should include arithmetic so taught as to make every boy thoroughly familiar with it, and the elements of geometry, algebra, and plane trigonometry. In the case of the more advanced students it is desirable that the course should comprise also an introduction to applied mathematics, and especially to the elements of mechanics.

XI. The teaching of natural science should, whenever it is practicable, include two main branches, the one comprising chemistry and physics, the other comparative physiology and natural history, both animal and vegetable. A scheme for regulating the teaching of this subject should be framed by the Governing Body.

XII. The teaching of classics, mathematics, and divinity should continue during the whole time that each boy stays at school, (subject to Recommendation XIII.) The study of modern languages and that of natural science should continue respectively during the whole or a substantial part of the time, and the study of drawing and music should continue during a substantial part, at least, of the time.

XIII. Arrangements should be made for allowing boys, after arriving at a certain place in the school, and upon the request of their parents or guardians, to drop some portion of their classical work (for example, Latin verse and Greek composition) in order to devote more time to mathematics, modern languages, or natural science; or on the other hand, to discontinue wholly, or in part, natural science, modern languages, or mathematics, in order to give more time to classics or some other study. Care should be taken to prevent this privilege from being abused as a cover for idleness; and the Governing Body, in communication with the Head Master, should frame such regulations as may afford a sufficient safeguard in this respect. The permission to discontinue any portion of the school work should in each case rest with the Head Master, who, before exercising his discretion, should consult the boy's tutor (if he has one) and the master who has given him instruction in the study which he purposed to discontinue, should satisfy himself of the propriety of either granting or refusing

the application, and in the latter case should, either personally or through the tutor, communicate his reasons to the parents.

XIV. Every part of the course of study above described should have assigned to it a due proportion of the whole time given to study. A scale has been suggested above, (page 230.)

XV. Every part of the course should be promoted by an effective system of reward and punishment. When impositions in writing are set, they should be required to be fairly written, and their length should be regulated with a view to their requirement.

XVI. The promotion of the boys from one classical form to another, and the places assigned to them in such promotion, should depend upon their progress not only in classics and divinity but also in arithmetic and mathematics, and likewise, in the case of those boys who are studying modern languages or natural science, on their progress in those subjects respectively.

XVII. The Governing Body, in communication with the Head Master, should settle a scale of marks for this purpose; and the scale should be so framed as to give a substantial weight and encouragement to the non-classical studies. (See suggested scale, page 230.)

XVIII. Ancient history and geography should be taught in connection with the classical teaching, and also in lessons apart from it but in combination with each other. They should enter into the periodical examinations, and contribute to promotion in the classical forms. Prizes should be given for essays in English on subjects taken from modern history. On the manner and degree in which modern history should be taught, we refrain from laying down any general rule.

XIX. For instruction in arithmetic and mathematics, in modern languages and in natural science respectively, the school should be re-distributed into a series of classes or divisions wholly independent of the classical forms; and boys should be promoted from division to division in each subject, according to their progress in that subject, irrespectively of their progress in any other.

XX. The school list issued periodically should contain the names of all boys, separately arranged in the order of their merit and place in the classical school, and also once at least in the year, separately arranged in order of merit and place in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively.

XXI. In order to encourage industry in those branches of study in which promotion from division to division is rewarded by no school privileges, and confers less distinction than is gained by promotion in the classical school, it is desirable that prizes and distributions be conferred periodically:—First, for eminently rapid and well sustained progress through the divisions in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively;—Secondly, for the greatest proficiency in mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively, (*i. e.*, for the highest place in the divisions of these schools,) in proportion to age.

XXII. Special prizes should be given for proficiency in music and drawing, but these studies should not be taken into account in determining the places of the boys in the school.

XXIII. Every boy should be required, before admission to the school, to pass an entrance examination, and to show himself well grounded for his age in classics and arithmetic, and in the elements of either French or German.* It appears generally advisable that the examination in each subject should be conducted by one of the masters ordinarily teaching that subject.

XXIV. In schools where seniority or length of time during which a boy has remained in a particular form or part of the school has been considered a ground for promotion, no boy should be promoted on that ground unless he has passed such an examination in the work of the form into which he is to be promoted as proves that he is really fit to enter that form.

XXV. No boy should be suffered to remain in the school who fails to make reasonable progress in it. For this purpose certain stages of progress should be fixed by reference to the forms into which the school is divided. A maximum age should be fixed for attaining each stage; and any boy who exceeds this

* This last point is formally dissentient from by Mr. Vaughan.

maximum, without reaching the corresponding stage of promotion, should be removed from the school. A relaxation of this rule, to a certain extent, might be allowed in cases where it clearly appeared that the boy's failure to obtain promotion was due to his deficiency in one particular subject, whilst his marks in other subjects would have counterbalanced that deficiency had the system of promotion permitted it.

XXVI. The charges made to parents and the stipends and emoluments of the masters should be revised, with a view to put both on a more simple and equitable footing.

XXVII. The charges for instruction should be treated as distinct from the charges for boarding and for domestic superintendence. It should cover instruction in every subject which forms part of the regular course of study, and tutorial instruction, where all the boys receive it alike, as well as instruction in school. This charge should be uniform for all boys who are not on the foundation. For the instruction of every boy on the foundation a sum should be paid out of the revenues of the foundation when they admit of it, and this payment should supersede all statutory or customary stipends and other emoluments now received by any of the masters from that source.

XXVIII. The aggregate amount of the charges and payments for instruction should be considered as forming a fund which should be at the disposal of the Governing Body, and out of which stipends should be assigned to the Head Master and other masters, according to a scheme to be framed by the Governing Body. These stipends might be fixed, or fluctuating with the numbers of the school, or with the number of each tutor's pupils, as to the Governing Body might seem best in each case; and in fixing them, the profits to be derived from boarding should be taken into account, in the case of masters having boarding-houses. A small graduated payment or tax might also be imposed upon masters having boarding-houses, should this appear just and expedient to the Governing Body. Permission to keep a boarding-house should in future be given to masters only. Leaving fees should be abolished. Entrance fees, if retained, should be added to the instruction fund. It appears desirable that a reserve fund for building, for the establishment of prizes or exhibitions, and for other objects useful to the school, should be formed wherever this may conveniently be done in the judgment of the Governing Body. In introducing this system the Governing Body would, of course, have due regard to vested interests, and would have regard also to such considerations of convenience as might properly modify or defer the application of it to any particular school.

XXIX. The working of the monitorial system, where it exists, should be watched, and boys who may deem themselves wronged by any abuse of it should be able at all times to appeal to the Head Master. The power of punishment, when intrusted to boys, should be carefully guarded.

XXX. The system of fagging should be likewise watched. Fags should be relieved from all services which may be more properly performed by servants; and care should be taken that neither the time which a little boy has for preparing his lessons, nor the time which he has for play, should be encroached upon unduly.

XXXI. It is desirable that the Governing Bodies should, after communication with each other, endeavor to make the holiday times of their respective schools coincide as far as possible, so as to enable school-boys who are members of the same family, but at different schools, to be at home for their holidays together.

XXXII. The Head Master should be required to make an annual report to the governors on the state of the school, and this report should be printed. It is desirable that tabular returns for the year, substantially resembling those with which we have been furnished by the schools, should accompany or form part of the report.

Concluding Remarks.—We have considered, in the preceding remarks, the external government of these schools; their internal government; their course of study, which appears sound and valuable in its main elements, but wanting in breadth and flexibility—defects which destroy in many cases, and impair in all, its value as an education of the mind, and

which are made more prominent at the present time by the extension of knowledge in various directions, and by the multiplied requirements of modern life; their organization and teaching, regarded not as to its range, but as to its force and efficiency—and we have been unable to resist the conclusion, that these schools, in very different degrees, are too indulgent to idleness or struggle ineffectually with it, and that they consequently send out a large proportion of men of idle habits and empty and uncultivated minds; and their discipline and moral training, of which we have been able to speak in terms of high praise.

It remains for us to discharge the pleasantest part of our task, by recapitulating in a few words the advances which these schools have made during the last quarter of a century, and by noticing briefly the obligations which England owes to them—obligations which, were their defects far greater than they are, would entitle them to be treated with the utmost tenderness and respect.

It is evident that important progress has been made even in those particulars in which the schools are most deficient. The course of study has been enlarged; the methods of teaching have been improved; the proportion of masters to boys has been increased; the quantity of work exacted is greater than it was, though still in too many cases less than it ought to be. At the same time the advance in moral and religious training has more than kept pace with that which has been made in intellectual discipline. The old roughness of manners has in a great measure disappeared, and with it the petty tyranny and thoughtless cruelty which were formerly too common, and which used indeed to be thought inseparable from the life of a public school. The boys are better lodged and cared for, and more attention is paid to their health and comfort.

Among the services which they have rendered is undoubtedly to be reckoned the maintenance of classical literature as the staple of English education, a service which far outweighs the error of having clung to these studies too exclusively. A second, and a greater still, is the creation of a system of government and discipline for boys, the excellence of which has been universally recognized, and which is admitted to have been most important in its effects on national character and social life. It is not easy to estimate the degree in which the English people are indebted to these schools for the qualities on which they pique themselves most—for their capacity to govern others and control themselves, their aptitude for combining freedom with order, their public spirit, their vigor and manliness of character, their strong but not slavish respect for public opinion, their love of healthy sports and exercise. These schools have been the chief nurseries of our statesmen; in them, and in schools molded after them, men of all the various classes that make up English society, destined for every profession and career, have been brought up on a footing of social equality, and have contracted the most enduring friendships, and some of the ruling habits, of their lives; and they have had perhaps the largest share in molding the character of an English

gentleman. The system, like other systems, has its blots and imperfections; there have been times when it was at once too lax and too severe—severe in its punishments, but lax in superintendence and prevention; it has permitted, if it has not encouraged, some roughness, tyranny, and license; but these defects have not seriously marred its wholesome operation, and it appears to have gradually purged itself from them in a remarkable degree. Its growth, no doubt, is largely due to those very qualities in our national character which it has itself contributed to form; but justice bids us add that it is due likewise to the wise munificence which founded the institutions, under whose shelter it has been enabled to take root, and to the good sense, temper, and ability of the men by whom, during successive generations, they have been governed.

VII. THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY deserves a name and a place in the history of public-school education in this country. No society was more needed at the time of its formation; and it helped to indicate the paths and the methods of school improvement.

Though founded at Boston in 1834, it may properly be said to have had its origin at Andover nearly two years earlier. At that time Rev. S. R. Hall, the author of "Lectures on School-Keeping," had the charge of a school in Andover which he called a "Teachers' Seminary." Some of the friends of Mr. Hall and of the seminary—moved, no doubt, by Mr. Hall's representations of its necessity—met on the 13th of July, 1832, and formed what they termed a "School Agents' Society," whose object was to promote the cause of education, especially in common schools, by school agencies and circuit teachers. Of this Society Samuel Farrar, Esq., was president; S. R. Hall, vice-president; W. P. Jewett, recording secretary; and Josiah Holbrook, treasurer—with a board of seven directors, embracing Prof. Emerson and W. C. Woodbridge, and corresponding secretaries in nearly every State in the Union. A second meeting was held in Andover on the 6th of August, when a full report was made of the plans, objects, and advantages of the Society. That report says:—"Our desire is to excite public attention to the importance of practical education—to lead the young to appreciate their ability to educate themselves—to carry the benefits of Infant School instruction to every child and bear the key of knowledge among teachers, inducing them to regard their vocation as one of the liberal professions, and securing among them union of object and effort—to encourage young men of promise to become teachers and agents, and to procure funds for the purpose of aiding such to educate themselves, especially if they intend to exercise their profession in the valley of the Mississippi—these all are objects of permanent importance in the opinion of the Board. * * * In short, this Association may act as a Lay Education Society, a Foreign and Home School Society, which shall supply destitute portions

of our own and other countries with the blessings that follow in the train of our Free Schools. * * * Of the *means* to be employed in effecting our object, the press will be the most powerful instrument we can employ. Associations auxiliary to our own—the co-operation of instructors—the establishment of seminaries for teachers—the formation of circuit schools where a course of uninterrupted instruction can not be given—the employment of traveling agents and lecturers, will all be put in requisition."

A third meeting, as a "Convention of Teachers," was held at Andover, April 10th, 1833, and continued in session nine days. Three lectures were usually given each day, and two meetings held for discussion. Lectures were delivered by S. R. Hall, chairman of the Convention, upon "*The qualifications of teachers;*" "*The objects for which a teacher should labor;*" "*The responsibility of teachers;*" "*The best method of commencing a school;*" "*School Discipline;*" "*Arithmetic;*" "*Natural Philosophy;*" and "*Electricity;*"—by Mr. Adams, former principal of the Andover Latin School, three lectures on "*The art of teaching;*"—by J. Holbrook, on "*The use of School Apparatus;*" and on "*The wants of the West;*"—by Mr. Z. Tenney, of the Teachers' Seminary, on "*Teaching Arithmetic;*"—by Mr. Loomis, on "*The absurdities of the English Alphabet;*" and on "*The general management of schools;*"—by Mr. Hibbert, on "*Geology;*"—by F. A. Barton, of the Teachers' Seminary, on "*Circuit Schools, and the best method of conducting them;*"—by Mr. Taylor, of the Theological Seminary, on "*Natural History;*"—by Mr. Foster, on "*The condition and prospect of schools in the Southern States;*"—by Mr. De Witt, on "*Improving the memory;*"—by Mr. Richmond, on "*Education in Greece;*"—and by Mr. Smith, on "*The Carstairian system of penmanship.*" Among the topics discussed were the following:—"Defects of common schools and the best means for remedying them;"—"Evils resulting from the neglect of moral instruction in common schools;"—"Best methods of communicating moral instruction in schools;"—"Introduction of Moral Philosophy and other new branches into schools;"—"Mode of teaching the alphabet, and spelling, and reading;"—"Impropriety of attempting to teach too many things at once;"—"Character and comparative merits of school-books;"—"Unpardonable neglect of ventilation in school-rooms;"—"Methods of securing the influence of females in the cause of education;"—"Importance of cultivating early habits of systematic benevolence in school children;"—"Mutual co-operation of schools, even in distant States, and facilities for producing it;"—"Utility of town and

county conventions of teachers;"—"Importance of having teachers well instructed in their professional duties;"—"Importance of making the business of teaching a profession;"—"Usefulness and facility of establishing Circuit Schools;"—"Importance of the American School Agents' Society, and its claims upon the community."

A resolution was passed recommending the employment forthwith of six or eight agents, to go through New England and New York in the months of May and June following and call conventions of teachers and other friends of education in every county. The Convention also set on foot a plan for supporting for six months an agent in Greece for the purpose of awakening parents to the importance of educating their children.

The *first annual meeting* of this Society was held at Andover, Aug. 5th, 1833; S. R. Hall, chairman. The Board of Directors presented an able and valuable report, in which they state that they had circulated nearly 1,000 circulars, setting forth the objects and means of the Society, and that a successful attempt had been made testing the practicability of *Circuit Schools*. Six of these schools had been maintained in four towns of Massachusetts, with the result of confirming the Board in the opinion that such schools "may be made an instrument of no common power for benefiting the young and especially the adult population in the oldest and most densely settled States." Several gentlemen (J. O. Taylor, C. E. Beeman, F. A. Barton, W. A. Alcott, Mr. Newton, and others) had been employed as temporary agents, and had visited about 150 towns in the New England States and New York, examining schools, addressing assemblies, establishing lyceums, calling county conventions, and forming associations of teachers—exploring the country and carrying information home to every part of it, so far as they had gone, and arousing the attention of parents and teachers to the defects of their schools and the best means of improving them. In most cases sufficient contributions had been made to defray the agents' expenses. The report also contains much information, collected by the agents and from other sources, respecting the condition and wants of schools in the several States. Among the meetings which had been held by the agents of the Society, was one in New York city, in July, presided over by the mayor, and addressed by Mr. J. O. Taylor, as agent, by the mayor and other gentlemen. Mr. Woodbridge, editor of the "Annals," says:—"We believe no meeting on this subject has excited greater interest or done more to arouse the community from that unaccountable apathy which prevails, than this meeting in New York." The time of the meeting

was occupied in discussing the operations, duties, and interests of the Society, in which part was taken by W. C. Woodbridge, Rev. Mr. Lindsley, Rev. Mr. Shipherd, of Ohio, F. A. Barton, S. R. Hall, Prof. G. B. Emerson, and others.

In order to secure more prompt and extended effort, it was considered expedient that the seat of the Society's operation should be transferred from Andover to Boston, and on the call of a committee appointed for the purpose, of which Prof. E. A. Andrews was chairman, a meeting was held in Boston, May 29th, 1834, for the purpose of attempting such measures in behalf of common schools as might be more efficient than any thing which had hitherto been done. At this meeting Daniel Noyes, Esq., of Boston, presided and Prof. B. B. Edwards was secretary, and upon motion of Mr. Woodbridge that a society be formed for the promotion of common school education, the AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY was organized and a constitution adopted, in which the object of the Society was declared to be "to promote elementary education in our own and in foreign countries." On the 12th of June the Society elected its officers. Francis Wayland, D. D., was chosen president, Dr. W. A. Alcott, recording secretary, and Daniel Noyes, treasurer. The number of vice-presidents elected was very great, as they were not limited in number, and it was deemed expedient to enlist as extended and general an interest as possible in the objects of the Society. Sixty-three were then chosen and more were afterwards added, selected from nearly every part of the Union. A board of twelve directors was also appointed, chiefly from Boston and vicinity. No corresponding secretary was chosen at first, nor any agent appointed. Mr. Beeman, who had previously acted in behalf of the School Agents' Society, was employed for a time and performed many valuable services.

The Society held frequent meetings during the summer of 1834 and every reasonable effort was made, that could well have been made without money or men, to set its wheels in motion. W. C. Woodbridge and W. A. Alcott were the soul of it, though other able men often attended its meetings and spoke fluently in its behalf, among whom were Profs. E. A. Andrews and B. B. Edwards, Rev. Dr. Sharp, Rev. Louis Dwight, Rev. Jacob Abbott, and Rev. Dr. R. Anderson.

At a subsequent meeting, Mr. Noyes having resigned the office of treasurer, S. H. Walley was appointed in his stead, and six special vice-presidents were also elected, viz., W. Reed, D. Sharp, Rufus Choate, Richard Fletcher, Heman Humphrey, and T. H. Gallaudet.

A circular, bearing date Aug. 2d, 1834, was prepared by a committee consisting of Messrs. Woodbridge, Edwards, and Dwight, and sent to all the remote officers of the Society, as well as to other friends of education in different parts of the country. This circular refers to the educational destitution existing throughout the country, to assist in remedying which the Society had been formed. Its first step would naturally be to employ agents in exploring and making known the state of common education in the country, in organizing local associations for the same purpose, and in exciting the interest of the citizens and legislators in the subject. Should the Society gain the public confidence, a wide field would open before it, but the only point hitherto decided was to *begin* without delay in the work of providing the best means of education for the rising generation. Those to whom the circular was sent were solicited to aid in procuring and disseminating information in regard to schools, and in promoting the object in view, and to communicate documents and facts in relation to schools and educational movements, and to give expression of their views as to the best mode of accomplishing the objects of the Society.

This circular was favorably received and by many was duly responded to. But the American School Society, important and philanthropic as was its object—well-timed as it was and however well-directed by its officers—met with difficulties. It had no means of procuring funds. The few agents it sent out—Mr. Beeman was the principal one—were obliged to provide for their own support and soon tired. Mr. Woodbridge and Mr. Alcott had other engrossing employments and though, in general, indefatigable in their labors, they could not do everything. And as a natural consequence, the Society languished and at length died.

NOTE.

For Memoir of

SAMUEL READ HALL, *see* Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. V., p. 373—388.

WILLIAM A. ALCOTT, " " " " " IV., p. 629—656.

WILLIAM C. WOODBRIDGE, " " " " " V., p. 81—64.

VIII. SIR HENRY WOTTON.

[Compiled from Creasey's "Eminent Etonians."]

Eton has never seen within her walls a more accomplished gentleman, in the best sense of the word, or a more judicious ruler, than she received in 1624, when Sir Henry Wotton became her Provost. He was born in 1568, at Bocton Hall in Kent, the family mansion of his father, Sir Robert Wotton. He was the youngest of four sons, and as such was destined to receive but a moderate income from his father; but he also received from him, what is far more valuable than all pecuniary endowments, an excellent education, worthy of the talents on which it was bestowed. His boyhood was passed at Winchester, and thence he removed, first, to New College, and subsequently to Queen's College, Oxford. He was highly distinguished at Oxford for his proficiency in all academical studies; while he at the same time made himself a master of modern languages; and he also displayed, on several occasions, the elegance of his genius in the lighter departments of literature. On his father's death, in 1589, he left England, and made the tour of France, Italy, Germany, and the Low Countries; and on his return, in 1596, he was chosen as Secretary to Queen Elizabeth's favorite, the Earl of Essex. On the fall of Essex, Wotton fearing to be implicated in the ruin of his patron, fled into France, whence he again went to Italy, and took up his abode at Florence. Soon after his arrival there, the Grand Duke of Tuscany having discovered, from some intercepted letters, a plot to poison James, King of Scotland, employed Wotton to go to Scotland secretly, and apprise that prince of his danger. Wotton assumed the name and guise of an Italian; executed his commission with great skill, and returned to Florence after having left a strong impression on the Scottish King of his learning, zeal, and diplomatic ability. On James' accession to the English throne, he sent for Wotton to court, gave him the honor of knighthood, and after pronouncing a high eulogium on him, declared his intention thenceforth to employ him as an ambassador.

Accordingly, during the greater part of James' reign, Sir Henry

represented his sovereign abroad. His first mission was to Venice, where he formed a close intimacy with the celebrated Paolo Sarpi, and had peculiar advantages of watching the refinements and devices of Italian policy during the contest that was then being carried on between the Roman See and the Venetians; in which the sagacious firmness of the most subtle of Aristocracies was pitted against the craft and intrigue of the Vatican.

Wotton returned from Venice in 1610, when he suddenly found his favor at court unexpectedly clouded. This arose from the discovery of a sentence which he had written at Augsburg, in his outward journey to Venice. As we possess a biography of Sir Henry, from the pen of his friend Izaak Walton, it is best in this and other parts of Sir Henry's career to adopt the quaint but expressive language of the old king of the anglers. Walton says:—

At his [Sir Henry's] first going ambassador into Italy, as he passed through Germany, he stayed some days at Augusta, where having been in his former travels well known by many of the best note for learning and ingenuousness, (those that are esteemed the virtuosi of that nation,) with whom he passing an evening in merriment, was requested by Christopher Flecamore to write some sentence in his Albo, (a book of white paper which for that purpose many of the German gentry usually carry about them.) Sir Henry Wotton consenting to the motion, took an occasion, from some accidental discourse of the present company, to write a pleasant definition of an ambassador, in these very words:—

"*Legatus est vir bonus peregrin missus ad mentiendum Reipublica causa.*"

Walton tries to represent this as an unlucky Latin translation of an English pun. Walton says that Sir Henry "could have been content that his Latin could have been thus Englished":—

"*An ambassador is an honest man sent to lie abroad for the good of his country.*"

But the word *lie* (being the hinge upon which the conceit was to turn) was not so expressed in Latin as would admit (in the hands of an enemy especially) so fair a construction as Sir Henry thought in English. Yet as it was, it slept quietly among other sentences in this *albo* almost eight years, till by accident it fell into the hands of Jasper Scioppius, a Romanist, a man with a restless spirit and a malicious pen, who in his books against King James prints this as a principle of that religion professed by the King and his Ambassador, Sir Henry Wotton, then at Venice; and in Venice it was presently after written in several glass windows, and spitefully declared to be Sir Henry Wotton's.

This coming to the knowledge of King James, he apprehended it to be such an oversight, such a weakness or worse in Sir Henry Wotton, as caused the King to express much wrath against him; and this caused Sir Henry Wotton to write two apologies, one to Velserus (one of the chiefs of Augusta) in the universal language, which he caused to be printed and given and scattered in the most remarkable places both of Germany and Italy, as an antidote against the venomous book of Scioppius; and another apology to King James, which were so ingenious, so clear, so eloquently couched, that his Majesty (who was a pure judge of it) could not forbear at the receipt of it to declare publicly, *That Sir Henry Wotton had committed sufficiently for a greater offense.*

And now, as broken bones well set become stronger, so Sir Henry Wotton did not only recover, but was much more confirmed in his Majesty's estimation and favor than formerly he had been.

It has been truly remarked, that old Izaak must be mistaken in

supposing that Sir Henry in this sentence only intended a poor English pun, and forgot that the Latin translation failed to convey his joke. Wotton, we may be sure, *thought* in Latin, when he wrote the words; and his jest was not without some sharp earnestness.

Indeed, Sir Henry's opinion of the position of an ambassador may be gathered from another anecdote which Walton relates of him:—

A friend of Sir Henry Wotton's, being desirous of the employment of an ambassador, came to Eton, and requested from him some experimental rules for his prudent and safe carriage in his negotiations; to whom he willingly gave this for an infallible aphorism:—

"That to be in safety to himself and serviceable to his country, he should always and on all occasions speak the *truth*. (It seems a State-paradox.) For, says Sir Henry Wotton, you shall never be believed; and by this means your truth will secure yourself, if you shall ever be called to any account; and 'twill also put your adversaries (who will still hunt counter) to a loss in all their disquisitions and undertakings."

Wotton, indeed, seems to have thought that all travelers, though not diplomatists, required some degree of Machiavellian skill. Milton, when about to leave England for his travels in France and Italy, obtained an introduction to Sir Henry, and received from him, among other directions, the celebrated precept of prudence—“*I pensieri stretti, ed il viso sciolto.*” “The thoughts reserved, but the countenance open.”

After his first Venetian embassage, Wotton was employed by James in missions to the United Provinces, the Duke of Savoy, to the Emperor, and other German princes on the affairs of the unfortunate Elector Palatine. He was also twice again sent ambassador to Venice; and his final return from “that pleasant country's land” was not till James' death in 1625. Wotton thus passed nearly twenty years as a diplomatist in foreign courts, during which, as well as during his former travels—

Πελλῶν ἀνθρώπων ἴστιν ἀστεῖα καὶ νοῦς, ἔγνω.

Wotton, like Ulysses, thus gained deep insight into the human mind, and also into the varying manners and conventional standards of right and wrong, which prevail among different men, and which the Latin poet indicates, when he translates the Homeric line by—

“*Qui mores hominum multorum vidit et ardet.*”

This knowledge produced in Wotton, not the misanthropy which it too often has generated in men of a less kindly temperament, but a charitable spirit in dealing with each individual phase of human weakness, and a truly catholic love of goodness and of honesty, wherever found, and by whomsoever displayed. The patience which he eminently possessed, was sorely tried during the first year after his final return to England. Large sums were due to him from the state,

for his diplomatic expenses ; he had been forced to sell his little patrimony ; and the sordid cares of daily and domestic want were now pressing hard on him in the decline of life. In this strait he received from the Crown the Provostship of Eton, when it fell vacant in July, 1625. His feelings on obtaining it may best be expressed in the language of Walton, who, doubtless, had often heard them from Sir Henry's own lips.

It pleased God, that in this juncture of time the Provostship of his Majesty's College of Eton became void by the death of Thomas Murray, for which there were (as the place deserved) many earnest and powerful suitors to the king. Sir Henry, who had for many years (like Sisiphus) rolled the restless stone of a state employment, and knowing experimentally, that the great blessing of sweet content was not to be found in multitudes of men or business, and that a college was the fittest place to nourish holy thoughts, and to afford rest, both to his body and mind, which his age (being now almost threescore years) seemed to require ; did therefore use his own, and the interest of all his friends, to procure it. By which means, and quitting the king of his promised reversionary offices, and a piece of honest policy, (which I have not time to relate,) he got a grant of it from his Majesty.

Being thus settled according to the desires of his heart, his first study was the statutes of the College, by which he conceived himself bound to enter into holy orders, which he did ; being made deacon with convenient speed. Shortly after, as he came in his surplice from the church service, an old friend, a person of quality, met him so attired, and joyed him ; to whom Sir Henry Wotton replied, "I thank God and the King, by whose goodness I now am in this condition ; a condition, which that Emperor Charles the Fifth seemed to approve : who, after so many remarkable victories, when his glory was great in the eyes of all men, freely gave his crown, and the cares that attended it, to Philip his son, making a holy retreat to a cloistered life, where he might by devout meditations consult with God, (which the rich or busy men seldom do,) and have leisure both to examine the errors of his life past, and prepare for that great day, wherein all flesh must make an account of their actions. And after a kind of tempestuous life, I now have the like advantage from 'Him that makes the outgoings of the morning to praise him ;' even from my God, who I daily magnify for this particular mercy, of an exemption from business, a quiet mind and a liberal maintenance, even in this part of my life, when my age and infirmities seem to sound me a retreat from the pleasures of this world, and invite me to contemplation ; in which I have ever taken the greatest felicity."

And now to speak a little of the employment of his times. After his customary public devotions, his use was to retire into his study, and there to spend some hours in reading the Bible, and authors in divinity, closing up his meditations with private prayer ; this was, for the most part, his employment in the forenoon. But when he was once sat to dinner, then nothing but cheerful thoughts possessed his mind ; and those still increased by constant company at his table, of such persons as brought thither additions both of learning and pleasure. But some part of most days was usually spent in philosophical conclusions. Nor did he forget his innate pleasure of angling ; which he would usually call his idle time, not idly spent : saying, he would rather live five May months, than forty Decembers.

A common love of angling created and cemented the friendship between Sir Henry Wotton and Izaak Walton. We owe to it the exquisite biography which Walton wrote of his friend, and the collection of Sir Henry's works, which Walton edited after Wotton's death. The spot where the two friends loved to practice the patient art of the rod and line is well known, and deservedly honored. About a quarter of a mile below the college, at one of the most pic-

turesque bends of the river, there is, or was, an ancient eel fishery, called Black Pots.

One of the most exquisite passages in Walton's book on angling is devoted to the just praises of Sir Henry Wotton, and incorporates some poetry of the good Provost, which we may well believe to have been composed at Black Pots, and which also merits quotation for its beauty.

My next and last example shall be that undervaluer of money, the late Provost of Eton College, Sir Henry Wotton, a man with whom I have often fished and conversed, a man whose foreign employments in the service of this nation, and whose experience, learning, wit, and cheerfulness made his company to be esteemed one of the delights of mankind: this man, whose very approbation of angling were sufficient to convince any modest censor of it, this man was also a most dear lover and frequent practiser of the art of angling; of which he would say, "Twas an employment for his idle time, which was then not idly spent: for angling was after a tedious study a rest to his mind, a cheerer of his spirits, a diverter of sadness, a calmer of unquiet thoughts, a moderator of passions, a procurer of contentedness;" and that it "begat habits of peace and patience in those that professed and practised it." Indeed, my friend, you will find angling to be like the virtue of humility, which has a calmness of spirit, and a world of other blessings attending upon it.

Sir, this was the saying of that learned man, and I do easily believe that peace and patience and a calm content did cohabit in the cheerful heart of Sir Henry Wotton; because I know that when he was beyond seventy years of age he made this description of a part of the present pleasure that possessed him, as he sat quietly in a summer's evening on a bank a-fishing; it is a description of the spring, which, because it glided as soft and sweetly from his pen, as that river does at this time, by which it was then made, I shall repeat unto you.

ON A BANK AS I SATE A-FISHING.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SPRING.

And now all Nature seemed in love,
The lusty saps began to move;
New juice did stir th' embracing vines,
And birds had drawn their valentines.
The jealous trout, that low did lie,
Rose at a well dimmed fly.
There stood my friend, with patient skill,
Attending of his trembling quill.
Already were the eaves possessed
With the swift pilgrim's daubed nest.
The groves already did rejoice
In Philomel's triumphing voice.

The showers were short; the weather mild;
The morning fresh, the evening smiled.

* * * * *
The fields and gardens were beset
With tulip, crocus, violet;
And now, though late, the modest rose
Did more than half a blush disclose.
Thus all looked gay, all full of cheer,
To welcome the new liveried year.

These were the thoughts that then possessed the undisturbed mind of Sir Henry Wotton.

Eton received great benefit from the zeal with which Sir Henry devoted himself to the improvement of the school; and from the sound sense and kindly spirit with which that zeal was accompanied. Boyle, in his autobiographical fragment, when he describes his own early education, speaks with praise and fondness of Wotton. He

says that Sir Henry was not only a fine gentleman himself, but skilled in making others so, and he expressly mentions that the school was then very much thronged with the young nobility of the land. Wotton thus farther describes Sir Henry's life as Provost:—

He was a great lover of his neighbors, and a bountiful entertainer of them very often at his table, where his meat was choice, and his discourse better. He was a constant cherisher of all those youths in that school, in whom he found either a constant diligence, or a genius that prompted them to learning; for whose encouragement he was (besides many other things of necessity and beauty) at the charge of setting up in it two rows of pillars, on which he caused to be choicely drawn, the pictures of divers of the most famous *Greek* and *Latin* *historians*, *poets*, and *orators*; persuading them not to neglect *rhetoric*, because *Almighty God has left mankind affections to be wrought upon*: And he would often say, *That none despised eloquence, but such dull souls as were not capable of it*. He would also often make choice of observations, out of those *historians* and *poets*: but he would never leave the school without dropping some choice *Greek* or *Latin* *apothegm* or *sentence*; such as were worthy of a room in the memory of a growing scholar. He was pleased constantly to breed up one or more hopeful youths, which he picked out of the school, and took into his own domestic care, and to attend him at his meals; out of whose *discourse* and *behavior*, he gathered observations for the better completing of his intended work of *education*; of which, by his still striving to make the whole better, he lived to leave but part to posterity. He was a great enemy to *strangling disputes on religion*: concerning which I shall say a little, both to testify that, and to show the readiness of his wit. Having in *Rome* made acquaintance with a pleasant *priest*, who invited him one evening to hear their *vesper music at church*, the priest seeing Sir Henry stand obscurely in a corner, sends to him by a boy of the choir this question writ in a small piece of paper: *Where was your religion to be found before Luther?* To which question Sir Henry Wotton presently under-writ: *My religion was to be found then, where yours is not to be found now, in the written Word of God.* To another that asked him, *Whether a Papist may be saved?* he replied, *You may be saved without knowing that. Look to yourself.* To another, whose earnestness exceeded his knowledge, and was still railing against the Papists, he gave this advice: *Pray, Sir, forbear till you have studied the points better; for the wise Italians have a proverb—He that understands amiss, concludes worse; and take heed of thinking, the farther you go from the Church of Rome, the nearer you are to God.*

Sir Henry's own letter to King Charles, in which he explains the motives through which he took holy orders, is preserved in the collection of his works, and it were injustice to his memory not to cite it:—

MY MOST DEAR AND DREAD SOVEREIGN,—

As I gave your Majesty foreknowledge of my intention to enter into the Church, and had your gracious approvement therein, so I hold it a sacred duty to your Majesty, and satisfaction to myself, to inform you likewise by mine own hand, both how far I have proceeded and upon what motives; that it may appear unto your Majesty (as I hope it will) an act of conscience and of reason, and not greediness and ambition. Your Majesty will be therefore pleased to know that I have lately taken the degree of Deacon; and so far am I from aiming at any higher flight out of my former sphere, that there I intend to rest. Perhaps I want not some persuaders, who, measuring me by their affections, or by your Majesty's goodness, and not by mine own defects or ends, would make me think that yet before I do die I might become a great prelate. And I need no persuasion to tell me, that if I would undertake the pastor function, I could peradventure by casualty, out of the patronages belonging to your Royal College, without further troubling of your Majesty, cast some good benefice upon myself, whereof we have

one, if it were vacant, that is worth more than my Provostship. But as they were stricken with horror who beheld the majesty of the Lord descending upon the Mount *Sinai*, so, God knows, the nearer I approach to contemplate His greatness, the more I tremble to assume any cure of souls even in the lowest degree, that were bought at so high a price. *Premant torcular qui vindemiarunt.* Let them press the grapes, and fill the vessels, and taste the wine, that have gathered the vintage. But shall I sit and do nothing in the porch of God's house, whereunto I am entered? God himself forbid, who was the supreme mover. What service, then, do I propon to the Church? or what contentment to my own mind? First, for the point of conscience, I can now hold my place canonically, which I held before but dispensatively, and withal I can exercise an archidiaconal authority annexed thereto, though of small extent, and no benefit, yet sometimes of pious and necessary use. I comfort myself also with this Christian hope, that gentlemen and knights' sons, who are trained up with us in a seminary of Churchmen, (which was the will of the holy Founder,) will by my example (without vanity be it spoken) not be ashamed, after the sight of courtly weeds, to put on a surplice. Lastly, I consider that this resolution which I have taken is not unsuitable even to my civil employments abroad, of which for the most part religion was the subject; nor to my observations, which have been spent that way in discovery of the *Roman* arts and practices, wherof I hope to yield the world some account, though rather by my pen than by my voice. For though I must humbly confess that both my conceptions and expressions be weak, yet I do more trust my deliberation than my memory: or if your Majesty will give me leave to paint myself in higher terms, I think I shall be bolder against the faces of men. This I conceived to be a piece of my own character; so as my private study must be my theater, rather than a pulpit; and my books my auditors, as they are all my treasure. Howsoever, if I can produce nothing else for the use of Church and State, yet it shall be comfort enough to the little remnant of my life, to compose some hymns unto His endless glory, who hath called me, (for which His Name be ever blessed,) though late to His service, yet early to the knowledge of His truth and sense of His mercy. To which ever commanding your Majesty and your royal action with most hearty and humble prayers, I rest,

Your Majesty's most devoted poor servant.

Sir Henry passed fifteen honorable, useful, and happy years as Provost of Eton. He designed several literary works, among which was a life of Luther, which, at the King's request, he laid aside in order to commence a history of England; but he made but little progress in this last-mentioned work. He also wrote some portions of an intended treatise on Education, which he styled *Moral Architecture*, to distinguish it from a former treatise, published by him, on *Architecture*, which was justly celebrated for the soundness of its principles and the grace of its style.

Sir Henry Wotton died on the fifth of December, 1639. He was never married. He was buried according to his desire, in the Chapel of the College, and on his monument was placed, as directed by him in his last will, the following inscription:—

*Hic jacet hujus sententiae primus Auctor:
DISPUTANDI PRURITUS ECCLESIARUM SCABIES.
Nomen alias quare.*

Which may be rendered as follows:

*Here lies the first Author of this sentence:
THE ITCH OF DISPUTATION WILL PROVE THE SCAB OF THE CHURCH.
Inquire his name elsewhere.*

A PHILOSOPHICAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION:

OR, MORAL ARCHITECTURE.*

BY SIR HENRY WOTTON.

THE EPISTLE DEDICATORY TO THE KING.

May it please your Majesty—I need no other motive to dedicate this discourse, which followeth, unto your Majesty, than the very subject itself, so properly pertaining to your sovereign goodness: for thereby you are *Pater Patriæ*. And it is none of the least attributes wherewith God hath blessed both your royal person and your people, that you are so. On the other side, for mine own undertaking thereof, I had need say more. I am old and childless; and though I were a father of many, I could leave them nothing, either in fortune or in example. But having long since put forth a slight pamphlet about the *Elements of Architecture*, which yet hath been entertained with some pardon among my friends, I was encouraged, even at this age, to essay how I could build a *Man*; for there is a moral, as well as a natural or artificial *complement*, and of better materials: which truly I have cemented together rather in the plain *Tuscan* (as our *Virtuous* termeth it) than in the *Corinthian* form. Howsoever, if your Majesty be graciously pleased to approve any part of it, who are so excellent a judge in all kind of *structure*, I shall much glory in mine own endeavor. If otherwise, I will be one of the first myself that shall pull it in pieces, and condemn it to rubbish and ruin. And so, wishing your Majesty (as to the best of kings) a longer life than any of the soundest works of nature or art, I ever rest,

Your Majesty's most devoted poor subject and servant,
H. WOTTON.

A SURVEY OF EDUCATION.

THIS TREATISE (well may it now proceed) having since the first conception thereof, been often traversed with other thoughts—yea, and sometimes utterly forsaken—I have of late resumed again, out of hope (the common flatterer) to find at least some indulgent interpretation of my pains; especially in an honest endeavor of such public consequence as this is above all other. For if any shall think *Education* (because it is conversant about children) to be but a private and domestic duty, he will run some danger, in my opinion, to have been ignorantly bred himself. Certain it is, that anciently the best composed estates did commit this care more to the magistrate than to the parent; and certain likewise, that the best authors have chosen rather to handle it in their polities, than in their economics. As both writers and rulers well knowing what a stream and influence it hath into government. So great indeed, and so diffusive, that albeit good laws

* Reprinted from the Third Edition of *Reliquiae Wottonianæ*. London, 1672.

have been reputed always the nerves or ligaments of human society, yet are they (be it spoken with the peace of those grave professors) no way comparable in their effects to the rules of good nurture; for it is in civil, as it is in natural plantations, where young tender trees (though subject to the injuries of air, and in danger even of their own flexibility) would yet little want any after-underprippings and shoarings, if they were at first well fastened in the root.

Now my present labor will (as I foresee) consist of these pieces:

First, There must proceed a way how to discern the natural capacities and inclinations of children.

Secondly, Next must ensue the culture and furnishment of the mind.

Thirdly, The moulding of behavior, and decent forms.

Fourthly, The tempering of affections.

Fifthly, The quickening and exciting of observations and practical judgment.

Sixthly, and the last in order, but the principal in value, being that which must knit and consolidate all the rest, is the timely instilling of conscientious principles and seeds of religion.

These six branches will, as I conceive, embrace the whole business; through which I shall run in as many several chapters or sections. But before I launch from the shores, let me resolve a main question which may be cast in my way: whether there be indeed such an infallible efficacy, as I suppose, in the care of nurture and first production; for if that supposal should fail us, all our anchorage were loose, and we should but wander in a wide sea.

Plutarch, I remember to the same purpose, in the first of his Tractates, which place this subject well deserved, endeavoreth by sundry similitudes, wherein that man had a prompt and luxurious fancy, to show us the force of Education; all which, in sooth, might have been well forborne, had he but known what our own countrymen have of late time disclosed among their magnetical experiments. There they tell us, that a rod or bar of iron having stood long in a window, or elsewhere, being thence taken, and by the help of a cork or the like thing being balanced in water, or in any other liquid substance where it may have a free mobility, will bewray a kind of unquietude and discontentment till it attain the former position. Now it is pretty to note, how in this natural *theorem* is involved a moral conclusion of direct moment to the point we have in hand.

For if such an unpliant and stubborn mineral as iron is above any other, will acquire by mere continuance a secret appetite, and (as I may term it) an habitual inclination to the site it held before, then how much more may we hope, through the very same means, (*education* being nothing else but a constant plight and *inurement*,) to induce by custom good habits into a reasonable creature? And so, having a little smoothed my passage, I may now go on to the *chapter*.

1. TOUCHING THE SEARCH OF NATURAL CAPACITIES AND INCLINATIONS.

Of the two things propounded in this chapter, I must begin with *capacities*: for the manurement of wits is like that of soils, where before either the pains of *tilling*, or the charge of *sowing*, men use to consider what the mould will bear, heath or grain. Now this, peradventure at the first view, may seem in children a very slight and obvious inquiry; that age being so open and so free, and yet void of all art to disguise or dissemble either their appetites or their defects. Notwithstanding, we see it every day and every where subject to much error; partly by a very pardonable facility in the parents themselves, to over-prize their own

children, while they behold them through the vapors of affection, which alter the appearance, as all things seem bigger in misty mornings. Nay, even strangers, and the most disinterested persons, are yet, I know not how, commonly inclined to a favorable conceit of little ones; so cheap a thing it is to bestow nothing but hope. There is likewise on the other side, as often failing by an undervaluation; for, in divers children, their ingenerate and seminal powers (as I may term them) lie deep, and are of slow disclosure; no otherwise than in certain vegetables, which are long before they shoot up and appear, and yet afterwards both of good and great increase; which may serve to excite care, and to prevent despair in parents: for if their child be not such a speedy spreader and braucher, like the vine, yet perchance he may prove *proles tarda crescentis olive*, and yield, though with a little longer expectation, as useful and more sober fruit than the other. And, I must confess, I take some delight in these kind of comparisons; remembering well what I have often heard my truly noble and most dear nephew, Sir Edmund Bacon, say, out of his exquisite contemplations and philosophical practice: that Nature surely (if she be well studied) is the best *moralist*, and hath much good counsel hidden in her bosom.

Now here then will lie the whole business, to set down beforehand certain signatures of hopefulness, or *characters*, (as I will rather call them, because that word hath gotten already some entertainment among us,) whereby may be timely desir'd what the child will prove in probability. These *characters* must necessarily be either impressed in the outward person, like stamp of nature, or must otherwise be taken from some emergent act of his mind; wherein of the former sort:

The first is that which first incurreth into sight; namely, the child's color or complexion, (as we vulgarly term it,) and thence perchance some judgment of the predominant humor.

The next is the structure and conformation of the limbs.

And the third is a certain spirituous resultance from the other two, which makes the countenance.

The second kind of these *characters* (which are rather mental than personal) be of such variety (because minds are more active than bodies) that I purpose, for the plainest delivery, to resolve all my gatherings touching both kinds into a *rhapsody* of several observations; for I dare not give them the authoritative title of *aphorisms*, which yet, when I shall have mustered them, if their own strength be considered rather in troop than singly, as they say, by pole, may perchance make a reasonable moral *prognostic*.

The Observations.

There are in the course of human life, from our cradles upward, certain periods or degrees of change, commonly (as the ancients have noted) every seven years, whereof the two first *septenaries*, and half of the third, or thereabouts, I will call the obsequious age, apt to imbibe all manner of impressions; which time of the suppleness of obedience is to be plied by parents, before the stiffness of will come on too fast.

There is no complexion, or composition in children, either privileged from bad proof, or prejudiced from good. Always I except prodigious forms, and mere natural impotencies, which are unmanageable *in toto genere*, and no more to be cultivated than the sands of *Arabia*.

More ordinary imperfections and distortions of the body in figure, are so far from excluding all hope, that we usually see them attended with some notable compensation one way or other, whereof our own time hath produced with us no slight example in a great minister of state, and many other.

I am yet willing to grant, that generally in nature the best outward *shapes* are also the likeliest to be consociated with good inward *faculties*; for this conclusion hath somewhat from the *Divine Light*: since God himself made this great *world* (whereof *man* is the little *model*) of such harmonious beauty in all the parts, to be the receptacle of his perfectest creature.

Touching such conjectures as depend on the complexions of children: albeit I make no question but all kinds of wits and capacities may be found under all *tinctures* and *intemperies*; yet I will particularly describe one or two with some preference, though without prejudice of the rest.

The first shall be a *polish clearness*, evenly and smoothly spread, not over-thin and washy, but of a pretty solid consistence; from which equal distribution of the *phlegmatic humor*, which is the proper alloy of fervent blood, I am wont to hope (where I see it) will flow a future quietude and serenity in the affections, and a discreet sweetness and moderation in the manners; not so quick perchance of conceit, as slow to passion, and commonly less inventive than judicious; howsoever, for the most part, proving very plausible, insinuant, and fortunate men.

The other is, the pure sanguine *melancholic tincture*, wherein I would wish five parts of the first to three of the second; that so there may be the greater portion of that which must illuminate and enrich the fancy, and yet no scant of the other, to fix and determine the judgment; for surely the right natural definition of a wise habit is nothing else but a plentifullness and promptness in the storehouse of the mind, of clear imaginations well fixed.

Marcellus Ficinus (the deep *Florentine Platonic*) increaseth these proportions, requiring eight to two in the foresaid humors, and withal adding two more of pure *choler*. But of that I shall speak more among the inward motions, purposely here forbearing it, where I only contemplate the superficial appearance.

In the outward frame and fabric of the body, which is the next object after complexion, an erect and forward stature, a large breast, neat and pliant joints, and the like, may be good significants of health, of strength, or agility, but are very foreign arguments of wit. I will therefore only say somewhat of the *head* and *eye*, as far as may conduce to my present scope.

The head in a child I wish great and round, which is the capablest figure, and the freest from all restraint and compression of the parts; for since in the section of bodies we find man, of all sensible creatures, to have the fullest brain to his proportion, and that it was so provided by the Supremo Wisdom, for the lodging of the intellective faculties, it must needs be a silent character of hope, when, in the *economical* providence of nature, (as I may term it,) there is good store of roomage and receipt where those powers are stowed: as commonly we may think husbanding men to foresee their own plenty, who prepare beforehand large barns and granaries. Yet *Thucydides* (anciently one of the excellentest wits in the learnedest part of the world) seems (if *Marcellinus* in his life have well-described him) to have been somewhat taper-headed, as many of the *Genoessers* are at this day in common observation, who yet be a people of singular sagacity: yea, I call not impertinently to mind, that one of my time in *Venice* had wit enough to become the civil head of that grave *republic*, who yet for the littleness

of his own natural head was surnamed *Il Donato Testelina*. But the obstruction of such particular instances as these are unsufficient to disauthorize a note grounded upon the final intervention of nature.

The eye in children (which commonly let them roll at pleasure) is of curious observation, especially in point of discovery; for it loveth, or hateth, before we can discern the heart; it consenteth, or denieth, before the tongue; it resolveth, or runneth away, before the feet: nay, we shall often mark in it a dullness, or apprehensiveness, even before the understanding. In short, it betrayeth in a manner the whole state of the mind, and letteth out all our fancies and passions as it were by a window. I shall therefore require in that organ, without poetical conceits, (as far as may concern my purpose, be the color what it will,) only a settled vivacity, not wandering, nor stupid; yet, I must confess, I have known a number of dull-sighted, very sharp-witted men.

The truth is, that if in these external marks, or signatures, there be any certainty, it must be taken from that which I have formerly called the *total resultance*: by which, what I mean, I shall more properly explain in the third section, when I come to handle the general air of the person and carriage. I will now hasten to those more solid and conclusive *characters*, which, as I have said, are emergent from the mind, and which oftentimes do start out of children when themselves least think of it; for, let me tell you, nature is *preditorious*.

And first I must begin with a strange note: that a child will have *tantum ingenii quantum iræ*; that is, in my construction, as much wit as he hath waywardness. This rule we have cited by a very learned man,* somewhere out of *Seneca*, and exemplified by *Angelus Politianus*, (none of the meanest critics,) who, writing the life of *Pietro de Medici*, concludeth, that he was likely to prove a wise man, because he was a froward boy. Truly I have been many times tempted to wonder, notwithstanding the value of these authours, how so disordinate a passion, seated in the heart and boiling in the blood, could betoken a good constitution of the brain, which, above any other, is, or should be, the coldest part. But because all sudden motions must necessarily imply a quick apprehension of the first stirring cause, and that the dullest of other creatures are the latest offended, I am content for the present to yield it some credit.

We have another, somewhat of the same mould, from *Quintilian*, (whom I have ever thought, since any use of my poor judgment, both the elegantest and soundest of all the *Roman pens*,) that a child will have *tantum ingenii quantum memoriae*. This, I must confess, will bear a stronger consequence of hope; for memory is not only considerable as it is in itself a good retention, but likewise as it is an infallible argument of good attention—a point of no small value in that age which a fair orange or a red apple will divert.

There is yet another in the same writer, and in the same place, where he handleth this very *theme*—How to descry capacities: that parents should mark whether their children be naturally apt to imitate; wherewith certainly all fine fancies are caught, and some little less than ravished. And we have a tradition of *Quintilian* himself, that when he saw any well-expressed image of grief, either in *pictures* or *sculpture*, he would usually weep; for, being a teacher of oratory in school, he was perhaps affected with a passionate piece of *art*, as with a kind of *mute eloquence*. True it is indeed, which a great master hath long before taught us, that man is of all creatures the most mimical, as a kind of near adjunct

* Capnio.

† Aristotle in *Rhetorica*.

to reason, arguing necessity in those that can do it well, whether it be in *gestures*, in *styles*, in *speech*, in *fashion*, in *accents*, or howsoever, no shallow impression of similitudes and differences; about which, in effect, is conversant the whole wisdom of the world.

Besides these, I would wish parents to mark heedfully the witty excuses of their children, especially at sudden and surprizes; but rather to mark than pamper them, for that were otherwise to cherish untruth: whereof I shall speak more in the *final section*.

Again are to be observed not only his own crafty and pertinent evasions, but likewise with what kind of jests, or pleasant accidents, he is most taken in others; which will discover the very degree of his apprehension, and even reach as far as to the censuring of the whole nations, whether they be flat and dull, or of quick capacity; for surely we have argument enough at this day to conclude the ancient *Grecians* an ingenious people; of whom the vulgar sort, such as were haunters of *theaters*, took pleasure in the conceits of *Aristophanes*; reserving my judgment to other place upon the filthy obscenities of that and other authors, well arguing among Christians, when all is said, that the devil is one of the wittiest.

Again, it shall be fit to note, how prettily the child himself doth manage his pretty pastimes. This may well become an ordinary parent, to which so great an emperor as *Augustus* descended in the highest of his state, and gravest of his age, who collected (as *Suetonius* tells us) out of all the known world, especially from the *Syrians* and *Moorz*, (where, by the way, we may note who were then reputed the sharpest nations,) little boys of the rarest festivity, to play before him at their ordinary sports. And indeed there is much to be noted, worthy of a sadder judgment in the wiliness of that age.

Again, I would have noted in children, not only their articulate answers, but likewise certain smiles and frowns upon incident occasions; which, though they be dumb and light passions, will discover much of that inward power which moveth them, especially when withal they lighten or cloud the whole face in a moment.

Lastly, let not his very dreams be neglected; for, without question, there is a great analogy between those apprehensions which he hath taken by day into his fancy, and his nocturnal impressions; particularly in that age which is not yet troubled with the fumes and cares of the world, so as the soul hath a freer and more defecated operation. And this is enough for the disclosing of a good capacity in the popular way which I have followed, because the subject is general.

Now for the second part of this chapter, touching inclinations: for after we know how far a child is capable, the next will be to know unto what course he is naturally most inclined. There must go before a main research, whether the child that I am to manage be of a good nature or no; as the same term is vulgarly taken, for an ingenious and tractable disposition: which being a fundamental point, and the first root of all virtuous actions, and though round about in every mother's mouth, yet a thing which will need very nice and narrow observation, I have spent some diligence in collecting certain private notes, which may direct this inquiry.

First, therefore, when I mark in children much solitude and silence, I like it not, nor any thing born before his time, as this must needs be in that sociable and exposed age, as they are for the most part. When, either alone or in company, they sit still without doing of any thing, I like it worse; for surely all dispositions

to idleness, or vacancy, even before they grow habits, are dangerous; and there is commonly but a little distance in time between doing of nothing, and doing of ill.

APHORISMS OF EDUCATION.

Time is the plainest legend, and every day a leaf is turned.

If we look abroad, we shall see many proceed yearly out of the schools of experience, whereas few, in comparison, are commended unto degrees by us: indeed the multitude of those schools infinitely exceeding our numbers; but especially because the means which they follow are far more obvious and easy. Libraries and lectures profiting none, but such as bring some measure of understanding with them; but the occurrents of the world being easily entertained by the weakest capacities, assisted only with common sense: neither therefore is this legend of time to be contemned by those whose wits are more pregnant, or studies furnished with greatest choice. The students of common law manifest the benefit arising from the use thereof; who, as by reading their year books they recover the experience by former ages: so by daily repair to the courts of justice, they suffer nothing of the present to pass unobserved. And I note, that whereas foreign universities (in conferring degrees) regard merely the performance of some solemn exercise, ours further require a certain expense of time, supposing (as I conceive) that howsoever exercise of form may be deceitfully dispatched of course, yet that he who lives some space among the assiduous advantages and helps of knowledge, (except he be of the society of the Antipodes, who turn night into day, and take no notice of what is done,) can not choose but receive so much upon ordinary observation, as may make him master of some art; which frequent opportunities, as they happily add something to those who are but idle lookers on, so, no doubt, they must advance perfection in those who are more studiously observant; every day presenting their judgments with matters examinable by the precepts they read, and most producing to their inventions, occurrents fit for further inquiry.

Every nature is not a fit stock to graft a scholar on.

The *Spaniard* (that wrote the *Trial of Wits*) undertakes to show what complexion is fit for every profession. I will not disable any for proving a scholar, nor yet dissemble that I have seen many happily forced upon that course to which by nature they seemed much indisposed. Sometimes the possibility of preferment prevailing with the credulous, expectation of less expense with the covetous, opinion of ease with the fond, and assurance of remoteness with the unkind parents, have moved them, without discretion, to engage their children in adventures of learning, by whose return they have received but small contentment. But they who are deceived in their first designs deserve less to be condemned, as such who (after sufficient trial) persist in their willfulness are no way to be pitied. I have known some who have been acquainted (by the complaints of governors, clamors of creditors, and confessions of their sons) what might be expected of them, yet have held them in with strong hand, till they have desperately quit, or disgracefully forfeited the places where they lived. Deprived of which, they might hope to avoid some misery, if their friends, who were so careful to bestow them in a college when they were young, would be so good as to provide a room for them in some hospital when they are old.

He seldom speeds well in his course, that stumbles at his setting forth.

I have ever been unwilling to hear, and careful not to utter, predictions of ill-success; oracles proceeding as well from superstitious ignorance, as curious learning: and what I deliver in these words, occasioned by examples past, I desire may be applied for prevention, rather than prejudice to any hereafter. To the same effect I heard a discreet censor lesson a young scholar, negligent at his first entrance to the elements of logic and philosophy, telling him that a child starved at nurse would hardly prove an able man. And I have known some who attended with much expectation at their first appearing, have stained the maidenhead of their credit with some negligent performance, fall into irrecoverable dislike with others, and hardly escape despair of themselves. They may make a better excuse, but not hope for more favor, who can impute the fault of their inauspicious attempts somewhere else—a circumstance necessarily to be considered where punishment is inflicted; but where reward is proposed for worth, it is as usually detained from those who could not, as from those who cared not to deserve it.

The way to knowledge by epitomes is too straight; by commentaries, too much about.

It is sufferable in any to use what liberty they list in their own manner of writing, but the contracting and extending the lines and sense of others, if the first authors might speak for themselves, would appear a thankless office; and if the readers did confer with the originals, they would confess they were not thoroughly or rightly informed. Epitomes are helpful to the memory, and of good private use, but set forth for public monuments, accuse the industrious writers of delivering much impertinency, and divert many to close and shallow eisters, whose leisure might well be acquainted with more deep and open springs. In brief, what I heard sometimes spoken of *Ramus*, I believe of those thrifty compendiums: they show a short course to those who are contented to know a little, and a sure way to such whose care is not to understand much. Commentaries are guilty of the contrary extreme, stifling the text with infinite additions, and screwing those conceits from the words, which, if the authors were set on the rack, they would never acknowledge. He who is discreet in bestowing his pains, will suspect those places to be desert and barren, where the way can not be found without a guide; and leave curiosity in quest of obscurities, which, before it receive content, doth lose or tire itself with digressions.

Discretion is the most universal art, and hath more professors than students.

Discretion, as I understand it, consists in the useful knowledge of what is fit and comely; of necessary direction in the practice of moral duties, but most esteemed in the composing and framing civil behavior: men ordinarily being better content to be dishonest, than to be conscious to themselves that they are unmannerly. Few study it, because it is attained rather by a natural felicity, than by any endeavor or pains; and many profess it; presuming on sufficiency to censure others; and as unable to discern themselves, concerning their own defects, as unaccustomed to be rightly informed. It little concerns men indifferent what we do in that kind; and our friends are either nothing offended therewith, or unwilling to offend us with their relation; our enemies seldom speak of it in our hearing, and when we hear, we as hardly believe them.

They who travel far, easily miss their way.

Travel is reputed a proper means to create men wise, and a possible to make them honest, because it forces circumspectness on those abroad, who at home are sursed in security; and persuadeth good behavior and temperance to such, who (far from friends and means) are willing to have little to do with the lawyer or physician. Men coming into other countries, as if born into a strange world, with some discretion above them, which teacheth both to distrust others, and keep themselves sober, and to shift off those homely fashions which nature and custom in their years of simplicity had put on them. But these effects are not general, many receiving more good in their bodies by the tossing of the ship, whilst they are at sea, than benefit in their minds by breathing in a foreign air when they come to land. Yet they are as desirous men should observe they have traveled, as careful in their travels to observe nothing; and therefore if they be not able to make it known by their relation and discourse, it shall appear by their clothes and gesture. Some attain to greater perfection, being able to show at what charge they have seen other places, by their excellency in some other rare vices, or irregularity in strange opinions. As the times are, he is commended that makes a saving voyage, and least discrediteth his travels, who returns the same man he went.

Somewhat of a gentleman gives a tincture to a scholar; too much stains him.

He who advised the philosopher (altogether devoted to the Muses) sometimes to offer sacrifice at the altars of the Graecæ, thought knowledge to be imperfect without behavior, which experience confirms, able to show, that the want thereof breeds as much disrespect to many scholars with the observers of ceremonies, as improper affectation moves distaste in some substantial judgments. Indeed slovenliness is the worst sign of a hard student, and civility the best exercise of the remiss; yet not to be exact in the phrase of compliment, or gestures of courtesy, the indifferent do pardon to those who have been otherwise busied; and rather deride, than applaud such, who think it perfection enough to have a good outside, and happiness to be seen amongst those who have better; pleasing themselves more in opinion of some proficiency, in terms of hunting or horsemanship, which few that are studious understand, than they blush to be known ignorant in that which every man ought to know. To which vanity I have known none more inclined than those whose birth did neither require, nor fortunes encourage them to such costly idleness; who at length made sensible by necessity, haply have the grace to repent, but seldom times the gift to recover.

Books and friends are better received by weight than number.

The necessities of life do warrant multitude of employments, and the variety of natures excuse the diversity of delights; but to my discretion that course seems most desirable, whose business occasions no further trouble, nor leisure requires other recreations than may indifferently be entertained with books and friends. They are indeed happy who meet with such whom they may trust in both kinds; and undoubtedly wise, that can well apply them: the imperfect apprehension and misuse never producing any good effect. For so we see capacious understandings (by continual inquiry and perusal of all sorts of authors) thrive no better in their knowledge than some men of good disposition (addicted generally to acquaintance) are gainers by the reckoning, when they cast up their expense

of time. The hunger of the one breedeth a consumption, and the other's thirst not determining but by some humorous disease; nay, they who seem to respect choice, sometimes err perniciously; which the Frenchman observed, who maintained his country was much the worse by old men's studying the venom of policy, and young men's reading the dregs of fancy. And it is manifest that in our little commonwealth of learning, much disparagement is occasioned, when able spirits (attracted by familiarity) are inflamed with faction, and good natures (carried away with the stream of more pleasant company) are drowned in good fellowship.

Love that observes formality is seated rather in the brain than in the heart.

By formality, I mean something more than ceremony and compliment, (which are the gesture and phrase of dissemblers,) even a solemn reverendness, which may well consist with honesty; not but that I admire a constant gravity, which upon no assurance will betray the least imperfection to any: but confess, I am far from suspecting simplicity, which (careful to observe more real duties towards all) is bold to trespass in points of *decorum* amongst some, which without blushing could not be confessed to others. A sign, from whence the greatest reasoner draws an argument of good affection, which (as divine charity covers many offenses) in the experience of common humanity is content to dispense with. And although policy shows it to be the safest course to give advantage to none, yet an ingenuous nature thinks that he is scarce able to distinguish betwixt an enemy and a friend, that stands wholly upon his own guard.

An enemy is better recovered by great kindness, than a friend assured.

There are some relics of goodness found even in the worst natures, and out of question seeds of evil in those who are esteemed best; whence it may appear less strange, that hearts possessed with rancor and malice are overcome with beneficence, and minds otherwise well qualified prove sometimes ungrateful; the one forced to confess satisfaction received far more than was due; the other, to acknowledge a debt of greater value than they are able to pay: howsoever, smaller courtesies seem not visible, great ones inducing an obligation upon public record.

The sincerest liberality consists in refusing, and the most innocent thrift in saving.

The bestowing of gifts is more glorious than the refusing of bribes; because gifts are commonly delivered in public, whereas men use not to confess what they owe, or offer what they ought not, before witnesses. But in true estimation, it is as honorable a virtue not to receive, as to disperse benefits; it being of greater merit wholly to abstain from things desirable, than after fruition to be content to leave them; as they who magnify single life prefer virginity much before widowhood. Yet some (in whom this kind of bounty is little observed) are unworthily censured for keeping their own, whom tenderness how to get honestly teacheth to spend discreetly; whereas such need no great thriftness in preserving their own, who assume more liberty in exacting from others.

Commendations proceeding from subtlety, captive the object; from simplicity, the author.

There is a skill to purchase, and pay debts only with fair words, drawing on good offices, and requiting them with commendations; the felicity whereof hath

made flattery the most familiar rhetoric, a leaving the old method of persuasion; by insinuating the worth of him who desires to receive, and with more ease raising a self-conceit in the man who is apt to swallow such light bribery, and not often indisposed to digest unthankfulness so curiously seasoned. But it is no great inconvenience that kindness should be bestowed *gratis*, or upon cheap conditions; the loss is, when men of plain meaning adventure on the exchange and use of this coin, who, forward to profess their belief, image the credit of their wisdom on the behavior of such, whose actions are not within their power, and become bound in suretyship, without the help of a scrivener: which inconsiderate affection makes many earnest speakers in defense of injuries done to others, and silent patients of wrongs unexpectedly befalling themselves; desire to make good their error, pressing their tongues to so unjust service; or care to dissemble it, debarring them from the general liberty of poor complaint.

Expectation prepareth applause with the weak, and prejudice with the stronger judgments.

The fashion of commanding our friends' abilities before they come to trial, sometimes takes good effect with the common sort, who, building their belief on authority, strive to follow the conceit of their betters; but usually amongst men of independent judgments, this bespeaking of opinion breeds a purpose of stricter examination; and if the report be answered, procures only a bare acknowledgment; whereas, if nothing be proclaimed or promised, they are perhaps content to signify their own skill in testifying another's desert: otherwise great wits, jealous of their credit, are ready to suppress worth in others, to the advancing of their own, and (if more ingenuous) no farther just than to forbear detraction; at the best rather disposed to give praise upon their own accord, than to make payment upon demand or challenge.

The testimony of sufficiency is better entertained than the report of excellency.

The nature of some places necessarily requires men competently endowed, but where there is choice none think the appointment to be a duty of justice bound to respect the best desert: nay, the best conceive it a work of free bounty, which men of mean qualities are likely to acknowledge, and the worldly make it a business of profit, unto which the most deserving are least apt to subscribe. But besides these unlucky influences from above, this cross success may be occasioned either by the too great confidence of those who hope to rise, or the jealous distrust of such as are already raised, whilst they too much presuming on their own desert, neglect all auxiliary strength, these suspecting some diminution to their own, stop the passage of another's worth; that being most certain, *Alterius virtuti invidet, qui difudit suæ.*

He that appears often in the same place, gets little ground in the way to credit.

Familiar and frequent use, which makes things (at first ungrateful) by continuance pleasing or tolerable, takes away the luster from more excellent objects, and reduceth them from the height of admiration, to the low degrees of neglect, dislike, and contempt; which were not strange, if it wrought only among the vulgar, whose opinion (like their stomachs) is overcome with satiety, or men of something a higher stage, the edge of whose sight is abated and dulled by long gazing; but the same entertainment is given by the judicious and learned, either because they observe some defects, which at first sight are less visible; or the actors in this

kind betray weakness in their latter attempts, usually straining so high at first, that they are not able to reach again in the rest; or by this often obtrusion not required, discover a good conceit of their own graces; and men so well affected to themselves are generally so happy as to have little cause to complain of co-rivals.

The active man riseth not so well by his strength, as the expert by his stirrup.

They that climb towards preferment or greatness by their own virtue, get up with much ado and very slowly; whereas such as are raised by other means, usually ascend lightly and appear more happy in their sudden advancements, sometimes by the only strength of those who stand above, exercising their power in their dependents commonly by subordinate helps and assistance, which young men happily obtain from the commendations of friends, old men often compass by the credit of their wealth, who have a great advantage in that they are best able to purchase; and likely soonest to leave the room.

Few men thrive by one only art, fewer by many.

Amongst tradesmen of meager sort, they are not poorest whose shop windows open over a red lattice; and the wealthiest merchants employ scriveners for security at home, as much as factors for their advantage abroad, both finding not more warrantable gains by negotiating with the industrious, than profitable returns by dealing with unthrifts. The disposition of the time hath taught this wisdom to more ingenuous professions, which are best entertained when they come accompanied with some other respects, whence preciseness is become a good habit to plead in, and papystry a privy commendation to the practice of physic, contentious zeal making most clients, and sensual superstition yielding the best patients. They who are intent by diverse means to make progress in their estate, can not succeed well, as he that would run upon his hands and feet makes less speed than one who goes as nature taught him; the untoward moving of some unskillful parts, hindering the going forward of those which are better disposed.

It is good to profess betimes, and practice at leisure.

There is a saying, that the best choice is of an old physician, and a young lawyer: the reason supposed, because where errors are fatal, ability of judgment and moderation are required; but where advantages may be wrought upon, diligence and quickness of wit are of more special use. But if it be considered who are generally most esteemed, it will appear that opinion of the multitude sets up the one, and the favor of authority upholds the other; yet in truth, a man's age and time are of necessary regard, such of themselves succeeding best, who in these or any other professions, neither defer their resolutions too long, nor begin their practice too soon; whereas ordinarily, they who are immaturely adventurous, by their insufficiency hurt others; they who are tedious in deliberation, by some improvidence hinder themselves.

Felicity shows the ground where industry builds a fortune.

Archimedes, the great engineer, (who, in defending Syracuse against Marcellus, showed wonderful experiments of his extraordinary skill,) was bold to say, that he would remove the world out of his place, if he had elsewhere to set his foot. And truly I believe so far, that otherwise he could not do it: I am sure,

so much is evident in the architecture of fortunes; in the raising of which the best art or endeavor is able to do nothing, if it have not where to lay the first stone; for it is possible with the like skill to raise a frame when we have matter, but not to create something out of nothing: the first being the ordinary effect of industry, this only of divine power. Indeed, many from very mean beginnings have aspired to very eminent place, and we usually ascribe it to their own worth, which no doubt in some is great; yet as in religion we are bound to believe, so in truth the best of them will confess, that the first advantage was reached out merely by a divine hand, which also, no doubt, did always assist their after endeavors. Some have the felicity to be born heirs to good estates, others to be made so beyond their hopes. Marriage (besides the good which oftentimes it confers directly) collaterally sometimes helps to offices, sometimes to benefices, sometimes to dignities. Many rise by relation and dependence, it being a happy step to some, to have fallen on a fortunate master, to some on a foolish, to some (few) on a good. There are divers other means, of which, as of these, I am not so fit to speak, but truly considered, they are all out of our own power, which he that presumeth most can not promise himself; and he that expects least, sometimes attains.

X. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

PROCEEDINGS FOR 1864.

PREFATORY NOTE.

THE official record, or Journal of the Proceedings of the Sixth Session, or FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING of the National Teachers' Association, held at Ogdensburg, N. Y., on the 10th, 11th and 12th of August, 1864, and such of the Addresses, Lectures, and Papers read during the session, as were received by the Committee of Publication up to this date, are printed in pamphlet form for distribution among the members who have paid to the Treasurer the annual fee of one dollar required by the Constitution.

Additional copies can be obtained by members, or others, for fifty cents per copy, on application to the undersigned.

The Committee were not successful in their efforts to obtain an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Teachers' Associations for 1864, to be published in this pamphlet, in pursuance of a vote of the National Association at Ogdensburg. They are authorized by the Editor of the American Journal of Education to state, that if the president, or any other officer of each of these Associations, will coöperate with him, he will prepare, before the next annual meeting, a history of all the principal Associations, National and State, which have been formed for the promotion of education in the United States.

D. N. CAMP

In behalf of the Committee of Publication.

New Britain, Conn., December 10th, 1864.

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* The folios are in continuation of the Proceedings of 1864.

[†] The Committee are indebted to the Editor of the American Journal of Education for this Memoir and Portrait.

XL METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS BEFORE THE AMERICAN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,

At Ogdensburg, New York, August 10th, 1864,

BY W. H. WELLS,

President of the Association.

We have abundant cause for devout gratitude, that notwithstanding our country has suffered another year of desolating war, we are again permitted to assemble in quietude and peace, for the purpose of discussing the great interests that underlie the whole fabric of our existence as a free nation.

Many of those who shared with us in these counsels one year ago, have gone forth in obedience to their country's call, and are now in the field imperiling their lives in defense of the Constitution and the Union; and others have already sealed their devotion to these high interests by the sacrifice of their lives. All honor to our brave brethren in the field. Most nobly and worthily do they testify to the patriotism and loyalty of our profession, and most generously have they gone forth as our representatives, to fight and bleed in our behalf. All honor to those of our brethren who have already fallen in our stead. Their heroic deeds and their noble self-sacrifice challenge our admiration and demand of us a tribute of undying gratitude. May their loss teach us new lessons of patriotic devotion to our country, and may we learn from this costly sacrifice to place a still higher value upon our existence as a free and undivided people.

The objects for which the National Teachers' Association was established have been very fully set forth in the able address of Mr. Russell, at the first meeting, in Philadelphia, and in the addresses of several of my predecessors in office.

The American Institute of Instruction had its birth in New England, and its home is there. It has often been tempted to emigrate farther west; and about the time when it became "one and twenty," it did actually break away from the old messuage, and venture as far away as Troy, taking good care, however, to keep on the east side of the Hudson, as near as possible to the limits of the old homestead. Here the coy adventurer received every kind attention.

The accomplished mayor of the city extended to him the hearty greetings of the Trojans, and he was most affectionately welcomed to that far-famed Ladies' Seminary which has so long been associated with the honored name of Emma Willard. My good friend Philbrick and others before me well remember that delightful dinner at her elegant mansion, those pleasant drives in her carriage, and those delectable soirees, in which the talented and accomplished Mrs. Willard shone with all the splendor of Elizabeth Hamilton or Lady Montague. But notwithstanding all these attractions of wit and beauty, and the most abundant enjoyment of the very nectar of life among the hospitable Trojans, the adventurer returned to his native air, and no courtly invitations, no fascinating charms have ever again been able to divert him away from the hills of his New England home. There he stands, in all the strength and beauty of manhood, a monument of educational progress and of educational power.

The National Teachers' Association occupies a position entirely different from that of any other existing organization. It is the offspring of the various local organizations of the country, and acts in harmony and coöperation with all of them.

On this our seventh anniversary we have come to the farthest limit of extra New England soil, to hold our sixth annual session. Though we have planted our standard in the Empire State, we do not intend to put on any imperial airs. Most heartily and deferentially do we bow to the grand patriarch of all American Educational Associations, the American Institute of Instruction. Many of us have taken special care, while providing ourselves with tickets to the National meeting, to have also a coupon attached which will enable us to attend the meeting of the American Institute at Portland, where we hope to enjoy the inspiring and healthful influences of that time honored educational fountain.

Various modifications in the organization and exercises of the National Teachers' Association have, from time to time, been suggested, some of which deserve our special consideration.

1. A very general desire has been expressed by the members of the Association, that the character of the exercises should be somewhat modified, and that more of our time should be devoted to practical educational papers and discussions, without any attempt to provide a special intellectual entertainment by a programme of set lectures. The exercises of the present meeting are arranged in conformity with this recommendation.

2. Another proposed change, which has met with considerable

favor, relates to the frequency of our sessions. By the original constitution, the meetings were to be held biennially, but the word *biennially* was changed to *annually* at the first meeting of the association after its organization. It is now proposed to return to the original purpose, and so amend the constitution that the meetings may hereafter be held only once in two years. It is essential to the full and complete success of the Association that every portion of the educational field should be represented at its meetings. Every State now has its own local Association. In New England, the American Institute of Instruction holds an annual session of three days. There are also numerous Teachers' Institutes and other educational gatherings, which draw largely upon the time and pecuniary resources of teachers. Under these circumstances, it is hardly to be expected that even the most earnest and devoted educators will present themselves every year at a National meeting, which requires thousands of miles of travel, and makes large demands upon their time and means. If the meetings were held biennially, they would secure a more certain attendance from all sections of the country, and it is believed they would also produce richer and more abundant fruit.

3. A third modification has been suggested, which in the estimation of some of our members would add greatly to the efficiency of the Association. It is this: that a portion of each session should be devoted to the consideration of questions of common interest to all classes of educators; and that during a portion of each session the Association should be divided into several sections, each section engaging in the discussion of questions in which only a particular class of educators are directly interested. Thus editors of educational journals might constitute one section, devoting their time to questions relating to editorial labors; college officers another section; school superintendents another; High School teachers another; Grammar School teachers another; primary teachers another; etc. This modification would not require any change in the constitution. An experiment might first be tried by devoting a single half day to sectional exercises. If the experiment proved successful, these exercises might be increased at pleasure; if unsuccessful, they might be abandoned.

I turn now to the most important object of the National Association—*educational advancement*. We live in an age of educational progress. Greater improvements have been made in educational methods, since the establishment of the American Journal of Edu-

cation in 1826, by William Russell, than during any ten previous centuries combined. In methods of primary instruction, greater improvements have been introduced in this country during the last ten years, than during any previous century. But the field of improvement is by no means exhausted. Errors in discipline, in instruction, in organization, still abound; and while it is the appropriate work of all educational Associations to strive for the removal of these errors and the introduction of better systems and methods, it is emphatically our mission to labor for the accomplishment of this great end. It is not enough that we bring together the ripe fruits of all the different local Associations, and combine them in one rich feast for the enjoyment of all who may attend these meetings. We have a more important work than this to accomplish. We must devise, originate, invent. We must make constant incursions into regions which are as yet only partially explored. We must exercise the utmost sagacity in discriminating between true and false improvements, and guard with jealous care against all injurious experiments with erroneous and impracticable educational schemes. Standing on the high platform of all the experiences and improvements of the past, it is our privilege and duty to rise still higher, and unless we do this, our Association fails to accomplish its highest mission.

Passing from these general remarks upon the organization and office of the National Teachers' Association, I desire now to invite your attention to a few hints in relation to a single branch of school instruction. The more I observe the prevailing systems of instruction in English grammar, the more I am convinced that we need important changes in our methods of teaching "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly."

It is all-important that pupils should become thoroughly acquainted with the structure and usages of the language, and learn to discriminate accurately between correct and incorrect forms of expression, and this part of grammar is generally well taught already; but this is by no means the highest object to be sought. Every teacher knows full well that a pupil may be a very good *parser*, and yet not be able to write a half dozen sentences correctly; that he may be able to *analyze* difficult examples in prose and verse, and yet be very deficient in the art of conversation; that he may have the whole grammar book by heart, and yet not be able to make a respectable speech. We need to spend more time in cultivating a *command of language*; *the power of expression*; *the ability to speak and write with correctness and ease*.

If we analyze the sources from which we derive our ability to use language correctly, we shall find that less than one-tenth of this skill is acquired by the ordinary study of grammar from a text-book. It is chiefly gained by joining with others in conversation; by listening to the language of others wherever it is heard, and then imitating what we hear, or endeavoring to improve upon it; by reading good authors and learning from them the best forms and modes of expression, and then making these forms and modes our own by embodying them in written language—by reading and hearing, and especially by actual conversation and writing.

I am aware that most teachers give some degree of attention to the language employed by their pupils in the ordinary exercises of the school; and the general introduction of object-teaching has proved an important auxiliary in teaching the use of language. It is also true that the practice of requiring pupils to write sentences, abstracts, reviews, etc., has increased ten-fold during the last ten or fifteen years; and most of the grammars now in use require frequent written and oral exercises, illustrating and embodying the principles taught. The value of these improvements can not be over estimated. They are all steps in the right direction; but it is still true that "the art of speaking" receives comparatively little direct attention in school exercises, and "the art of writing" far less than its importance demands.

Grammar is too generally regarded as an end, whereas it is only a means. The great object to be attained, is not the mastery of a text-book in grammar, but the acquisition of language. The time will never come when analysis and parsing will be dispensed with; but the time will surely come when instruction in "the art of speaking" will consist mainly of lessons which embrace *actual speaking*; of exercises designed to cultivate the art of conversation, of narration, and other forms of speech, by constant and careful practice in the use of these forms; when lessons in "the art of writing" will consist mainly of exercises in the *practice* of writing, under the special guidance and direction of the teacher; and when analysis and parsing will find their appropriate place as collateral aids in connection with the daily living exercises in the use of the English tongue. There is now an almost universal demand for increased *practicalness* in education, and I have the fullest confidence that the improvements to which I have alluded, will be continued and increased, till one-half of the time which is now consumed in the study of English grammar, will furnish twice the fruit which we now realize.

Changes of this nature should be introduced gradually and with great caution. But if teachers and pupils will everywhere keep constantly before them the desired end; if teachers will strive earnestly and faithfully to adapt their instructions to this end; and if they will employ frequent test examinations, not merely nor primarily to ascertain the pupils' knowledge of the forms and rules of grammar, but chiefly to learn what progress they are making in the art of using language with freedom and accuracy; then will these improvements be introduced as rapidly as they can be properly assimilated.

The details of the exercises to be employed must in a great degree be left to the ingenuity and good sense of teachers; and yet there are many teachers who would not know how to set themselves at work in introducing these changes without tangible rules and directions, and the presentation of model exercises; and instruction that is left to accident or chance is too often neglected altogether. Instruction in the use of language, to be effective must be systematic. The principles involved should be carefully digested, and the methods deduced from them should be fully presented and illustrated in all our school grammars. I am strongly inclined to say that I believe the unpretending little volume entitled "*Grammar of Composition*," which is really what its name implies, is better adapted to impart a knowledge of the language than any of the more elaborate grammars now in use; but I suppose it would be in bad taste, and so I will recall the observation.

I do not propose here to attempt an exhaustive discussion of this subject, and will close with a few practical hints embodying what appear to me to be some of the best methods now in use, with additional suggestions in the same direction.

1. Let it be an unvarying rule that whenever pupils learn a principle in grammar, they must fasten it in the mind by embodying it in a written word, or sentence, or paragraph; or by an extemporeous oral example; or by both. Let them also select from their reading-books, or from some other source, copious examples illustrating the same principle, and bring them to the recitation. This direction is virtually given in many of the grammars, but in a majority of cases, its execution is exceedingly formal and defective. What we now need is that teachers and pupils shall be brought to feel that more than half the value of a recitation in the principles of grammar consists in the original illustrations. If teachers could once be brought to regard themselves as derelict in duty when they fail to draw from their pupils such illustrations as will show that

they have not only learned the rules but fully comprehend them, one of the great mistakes in teaching grammar would soon disappear from the schools.

2. Let the written reviews and abstracts of the pupils be regarded as a part of the regular exercises in grammar. Let them be brought to the recitation, and there subjected to a careful application of the laws of speech. If the papers are numerous, a portion only may be selected for this purpose. Those found particularly defective, should afterwards be re-written. Written exercises not only lose much of their value when this rule is neglected, but they often became the very means of originating and confirming erroneous habits and practices.

In marking the value of all written exercises, whether reviews, or abstracts, or other papers, the language employed should be taken into account as one of the main points requiring the care and attention of the pupil.

3. Another direction of special importance is one which relates to the language of pupils at recitation and in all their intercourse with the teacher and with each other on the school premises. Let it be distinctly and fully understood that one of the chief objects, not of the grammar lesson alone, but of school life, is the formation of a correct and appropriate style of speaking and writing. Let every pupil understand and feel that he is expected to use the best language he can command, on all occasions. Let no inelegant, or inaccurate, or incomplete expression be allowed to pass unnoticed. Even the hours of recess may be turned to good account in the accomplishment of this object. Critics may be appointed who shall collect some of the best examples in every variety of style that are heard during the day, on the play-ground, or elsewhere, as well as examples that are inaccurate and objectionable. These examples, with such as may have been specially noticed by the teacher, will not only form the basis of an exceedingly profitable lesson but a kind and judicious use of them by the teacher may be made to exert an important influence in correcting bad habits and cultivating good ones.

To give efficiency and value to these critical reviews of the language of school life they should by all means be taken into account in summing up the daily written record of the scholarship of the pupils. There is no branch of school instruction in which the influence of a permanent written record can be made to accomplish better results than in connection with these general and miscellaneous lessons in the use of language.

4. The most difficult and perhaps the most important step of improvement required, in teaching the use of language, is that which relates to the art of conversation.

When we consider how much we are indebted to our conversational powers for happiness and success in life; when we consider to what extent the differences which we observe in the social state of different men and women, depend upon their relative degree of aptness and skill in conversation; and when we consider that our ability to converse is as much a matter of imitation and cultivation as any other branch of education, let us not despair of success in teaching an art so important as this, in the school-room. If the first experiment fails, let us try a second, and if need be, a third, and a seventh. Already has this great art of life been divorced from our course of school instruction quite too long. The past is full of successes in the great work of improvement. If we would make the present equally fruitful, there is no field that is more invitingly open before us than this. Let us not shrink from the responsibility. *The object can be attained, and the teachers of to-day are equal to the work.*

Fortunately, we have already furnished to our hands, one of the most valuable instrumentalities for the accomplishment of this object. The system of object-teaching which is now generally introduced in the best primary schools of the country, is of itself a grand system of conversational exercises. The influence of these exercises, in forming good or bad habits of conversation, depends entirely upon the manner in which they are conducted. If the conversation is allowed to drift, without any special guidance or direction, then will the formation of bad habits be as common a result as the formation of good ones. But if the cultivation of a correct and elegant style of conversation is made a cardinal object in every lesson, then will this secondary fruit of object-teaching be as rich and abundant as the primary, and habits of untold value and importance will be nurtured and strengthened from the very beginning of school education. Here then is the first great point for us to secure. Let it be distinctly understood by both teachers and pupils that every lesson on objects is also a lesson in conversation; let incorrect and inelegant forms of speech be corrected as they occur; let correct and appropriate expressions receive special commendation; and in marking the value of each pupil's exercise, let the form and mode of expression be regarded as one of the most important elements to be taken into account. If I had the ability, I would give increased emphasis to this direction, because I have reason to believe that at

tention to the art of conversation is now in a great degree overlooked by teachers in giving lessons on objects.

But we must not stop here. The art of conversation is of greater importance than many of the other branches taught in school, and like the other branches, it should have set exercises, recurring at regular intervals. I would have the experiment tried of assigning a special conversational lesson once a week. Let a subject be given to the class, and let both teacher and pupils inform themselves, if need be, in regard to it, so that they may come to the exercise with minds aglow with interest in the subject before them. Then let the teacher or one of the pupils introduce the subject in an easy, natural manner, and others follow with the utmost freedom, as inclination moves, but with an earnest desire and effort on the part of each to render the conversation as entertaining and acceptable as possible. At the close of the conversation, the teacher may review the exercise, and in a kind and proper manner point out the prominent defects and suggest improvements. Special critics may also be appointed from the class, who shall present their views of the conversation in the same kind and courteous spirit; or the merits and defects of the exercise may be made the subject of a free conversation by the whole class, under the general direction of the teacher.

If the class, or any portion of it, can visit a menagerie, a museum, a steam-engine, a ship, a fair, a military parade, a brickyard, a saw-mill, or any other object of interest let this be taken as a theme for a conversational exercise.

Conversation often takes the form of discussion. Occasionally let a subject be given to the class for discussion; one portion of the pupils taking one side, and another portion the other side. Let the discussion be introduced and continued with the same freedom as other conversational exercises, only with somewhat greater latitude of earnestness and pungency.

These lessons admit of a great variety of changes, which the teacher will readily discover and introduce. A conversation may be assigned in which a portion of the class shall represent Englishmen just arrived in this country; or a portion of the pupils may be supposed to have just returned from foreign travel, or from California or Colorado. A table conversation may be introduced; or the class may regard themselves as strangers to each other, meeting on a steamer.

An interesting passage of history, a biographical sketch, or other selection may be read before the class, and then made the subject of conversation. Reading and conversation should go hand in

hand. If the influence of this method can be sent home to the families to which the pupils belong, an additional advantage will be gained. The value of family reading is increased a hundred per cent. when it is accompanied by free conversation and critical remarks.

There are certain rules respecting the occasions when particular subjects should be introduced or avoided; respecting forwardness and reserve; proprieties to be observed in the presence of different classes of persons; changes of style required in different circumstances, etc., which should be taught at school. These rules are best learned in connection with the conversational exercises to which they relate. They should be so applied as to guide and elevate the tone of conversation without fettering it.

But I have already extended these remarks to greater length than I intended. I believe it will be generally admitted that I have not over estimated the defects which now exist in our methods of teaching English grammar; and I believe I shall be sustained in the position that it is the duty of teachers to labor earnestly and perseveringly for the removal of these defects. I have endeavored to point out a few of the methods by which this object can be accomplished. If the magnitude and importance of the object can be fully realized, the work will be half performed. Teachers will then devise and multiply methods of their own; grammars will be written with this object distinctly in view; every recitation, every written exercise, and every utterance in school will be made to bear in this direction; and English grammar will truly become "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly."

XII. LIBERAL EDUCATION.

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We propose in discussing this subject to consider what a truly liberal education is, to refer to some defects which seem to exist, and to point out their cause and remedy.

The term, *Liberal Education*, as commonly used has an acquired rather than a generic signification. It is understood to signify the study of a number of branches which a pupil is required to pursue in order to receive the degree of Bachelor of Arts, at an institution authorized by charter to grant this degree. As thus used it has not reference to the quality of discipline, or to the kind of instruction given, but to the quantity. Irrespective of the facilities of imparting instruction, or the methods of culture pursued, the term is alike applicable.

The word liberal, as applied to the number and extent of a collegiate course of studies, is used with its ordinary signification, as this course will be acknowledged to be eminently liberal and exhaustive. But there is something other to be considered in securing a liberal education, than the course of study to be pursued. Its amplitude does not of necessity determine its wisdom, or the extent to which the culture imparted by it, is truly liberal. A man in the full maturity of his intellectual powers, who has made all knowledge his province, in looking back over the whole field, may easily mark out a course of studies, which if mastered would make a complete scholar. And here the mistake has been made. We have looked at education objectively. We have determined what would be desirable to have done in order to make a liberal scholar, and have disregarded the quality and strength of the pupil's mind and its susceptibility of being nourished by such studies. We have marked out a course which must be completed in four years, but have neglected to consider whether the pupil's powers are fitted to digest and assimilate it in that time, or whether he has arrived at that intellectual maturity necessary for the mastery of such studies.

It would not be difficult to draw up a bill of fare for one's dinner, that could in one sense be pronounced liberal, embracing every article of diet known to the *cuisinier*; but it would not follow because every thing on the bill was partaken of, that his physical system would be nourished and strengthened in a corresponding degree. Education properly has reference to the vigor and culture of the mental faculties secured by a course of study and not to gormandizing knowledge. "The paramount end," says Hamilton, "of liberal study is the development of the student's mind."

The term *liberal*, therefore, as applied to education, is entitled to a broader interpretation, and one which its common meaning warrants us in using. It ought to signify the quality and completeness of the culture derived, and not the quantity of studies pursued. That should be regarded as liberal which is based on scientific principles. The education given in the primary school ought to be just as liberal as that given in the college, that is, it ought to be dictated by enlightened views, adapted to the nature and capacity to be educated, and administered by well directed practice. That can never be regarded as truly liberal, however much in quantity, which is unphilosophic and empirical in quality.

What then is a truly liberal education? It is one which secures to the pupil a full development of his nature, in harmony with those principles of growth which the Creator has established. That we may know whether our culture is correct we must study and know what powers the pupil has in readiness to be developed at the different stages of his progress, and what means will best feed and assist nature to perfect her work.

At first, like the tender plant, is the growing body, requiring pure air, sunlight, wholesome food, and activity, and, of the spirit, external and internal perception, warm feelings unchilled by deception or disappointment, a lively curiosity, and a loving confiding heart. Later, in addition to these, are more strikingly developed, memory, imagination, a still stronger curiosity to know the unknown and illimitable, and a keen sense of right and wrong. And still later, the powers of reason, taste, the passions, a poetic imagination, the religious sense, and, ruling over all, the will.

To make the education of these powers liberal we must select, from our list of studies adapted to the training of the pupil's nature, such as are best suited to the different stages of its development. The child at first manifests a strong curiosity to see, to handle, and to know about every thing that attracts its attention. At this period the senses are more than usually acute. It apprehends and

remembers with remarkable precision every thing which it once comprehends, and with much less effort than at any subsequent period. This activity of the senses should then be fostered. The teaching should to a great extent be oral. The school-room should be furnished with abundant material for illustrating the descriptive portion of the rudiments of every department of learning. The child never tires of stories about animals and their habits,—of the wonders of the sea and the adventures of men upon its bosom,—the peculiarities of the different races of men, their modes of life, and the lands they dwell in,—a desire for picture-making, and in the majority of children a fondness for music. These tastes and inclinations point unmistakably to the powers which nature has in readiness for culture. The curiosity to see and to handle should be cultivated and the gratification experienced in having this curiosity satisfied should be made to contribute to its growth. All the elementary notions of form and their combinations,—of numbers as applicable to forms and to objects,—of colors,—of the passions and desires, as love, and gratitude, and confidence, should be nurtured, and so exercised as to secure a healthy growth.

Later, when arrived at the period of youth, when the memory and the representative faculty are more perfectly developed, then the instruction addressed to the senses may give way to studies wherein the material of knowledge which has previously been acquired shall be used, and exertion of mind will be required, and wherein things not readily understood shall be grappled with, and intellectual victories be won. The mind will thus be enabled to rejoice in its strength. This is the period in which geography, history, biography, travels, natural history with the more extended investigation of form and number should be pursued. Every subject upon which the imagination can dwell delighted, is relished.

When the youth has arrived at the years of maturity, and can reflect and reason, is touched with sentiment, has an idea of the beautiful, and recognizes that which is worthy of veneration and worship, then he is prepared for the discipline and the culture which a more severe course in the abstruse sciences affords, the syllogism, the generalizations of science, original demonstration, the laws of taste and criticism, the principles of research and investigation, the honors due to good men, and the attributes of Deity.

It is indeed important that these two subjects—the powers to be educated, and the fit subjects to be taught—be carefully considered. But, *even of greater importance than these is it that the instruction be given by a liberal minded and well instructed teacher.* It is not

enough that the proper studies be assigned to the proper period of development. It is the teacher who is to put life and vitality into the system, and the education which results will be liberal in proportion as he is liberal. Without him, the lecture room, the text-book, the cabinet, the library, the apparatus, are but the manakin, the dry bones left to rattle in the air. Why was it that when Dr. Arnold journeyed down from Rugby,* the scene of his early labors and his triumphs, to the college at Oxford to which he had been elected as a lecturer and a professor, he soon found that that lecture room, which under other professors had been but meagerly attended, was at once crowded to overflowing? It was because those young men found that the going there was like going up to the good feast. It was indeed a banquet-hall, and Juno never summoned her guests to the halls of Jove, where was spread a banquet more magnificent.

One of the prominent errors of our modern education, both in the primary school and in the college, has been, that we have given too much prominence to the text-book, and too little to the living teacher. If we examine this matter historically, we find that in the early stages of education, and up to the time of the invention of the art of printing, the voice of the living teacher was almost exclusively relied on. The master did not publish the notes of his teaching, and it is probable that but few copies were made of them, and those rather as an after-thought and as preservative of the words of the master, than as a text-book to be put into the hands of the new pupil when he entered the school. The disciples of Plato wandered with him amid the groves of the academy.

“————studious walks and shades,”

while he propounded his doctrines. The pupil met the teacher and the text-book in one personage, and drank in wisdom from the living master. In his very eye and gesture the thoughts were read which he uttered. All doubts and difficulties were discussed and solved as they occurred to the learner, and the author's own perceptions were sharpened and quickened by this reflex influence. “Almost all the education” says Macauley, “of a Greek consisted in talking and listening.”

In later times, when the art of printing came into use, and the manuscripts of the old teachers were multiplied and scattered through the civilized nations, these works began to be studied. Still they did not come into immediate use as instruments of in-

* Stanley's Life of Arnold, Vol. II., pages 254-5.

struction. The only cultivated class during the dark ages, from the fifth to the thirteenth centuries, were the priests. Consequently, they had the entire control of education. The kind of instruction which they gave was naturally such as most intimately concerned their vocation. The schools were ecclesiastic and monastic institutions. The course of instruction was such as to give an exclusive education. The living teacher was still in the ascendent and the books of the old masters were *yet* only subsidiary to his designs.

But the time was approaching when education could no longer be circumscribed. The masses, who for centuries had been besotted in ignorance, were to be aroused from their stupor. The art of printing had put within their reach the literature of the polished nations of antiquity. Those matchless conceptions which the sages of the academy and the forum had uttered, found a lodgment in minds from which the spark of intelligence was not wholly extinguished, though enshrouded in the mists and darkness of that be-nighted period; and when the voice of Luther rang through Europe, proclaiming that religious intolerance should be no more, the power of an exclusive education was forever broken.

In our day a complete revolution has taken place from the practice which prevailed among the teachers of antiquity, the text-book having become omnipotent and the teacher a cipher in the comparison. In whatever grade of schools, he who has mastered a system, and is himself an independent artist, is the exception. The teacher has thus become degraded to a menial position, and the text-book stands up before him and hides him from view.

The school has thus lost the freshness, the vitality, and inspiration which in early times it had. The dull and lifeless book, to the pupil unskilled in habits of study, appears repulsive, and he too often comes to abominate the school and all connected with it.

The influence of this error is easily traceable to the making of text-books. The author, believing that it is his province to make a text-book and a teacher bound together in one volume, has not confined his labors to his legitimate business, writing the elements of a science; but he has put in along with them much trifling minutiae, and his own method of teaching it, taking it for granted that teaching is merely an imitative art, and that every one can follow precisely in his footsteps. As a consequence we have books of familiar science, and science made easy, and science without a teacher, and milk and water dilutions till the veriest babe would be troubled to find any nourishment therein.

From this elevation of the text-book, and consequent degredation

of the teacher, have sprung many evils, and caused our education to be in many respects illiberal and unphilosophic. In one of the reports of the Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the schools of Boston, occurs this statement: "Another general defect is the want of profitable employment for the children, especially in the lowest classes. Go into any of these schools at any time of day, and in nine cases out of ten, if not in forty-nine out of fifty, three-fourths of the pupils will be found without profitable employment. Thus the time of these children is wasted, for precious months and years in succession. But this great waste of time is not the only evil arising from this defect. Many bad habits are formed. The strength of the teacher, which should be expended in teaching, is necessarily taxed to a great extent by the incessant vigilance and care requisite to keep these idlers out of mischief and to secure some reasonable degree of stillness."*

What is the explanation of the difficulty here complained of? Is it not that the teacher goes to the school with the expectation that the pupils will study and find out what they need to know from a text-book, and that he himself is simply to superintend the study and hear them recite their lessons? It is the text-book that the pupil is to meet at the school-room, and commune with, and be instructed by, and *not* the teacher. Is not this the impression entertained by even the teachers of our primary schools, and by the great mass of teachers in the ungraded schools throughout the land? It is unnecessary to trace the results of this evil in the miserable reading, and drawling tones, which we hear in the primary school, and in the pupil's ignorance of the many primary notions which their faculties are expressly fitted to apprehend.

Another evil which results from this want of personality on the part of the teacher is imperfect classification; a failure to discover the nature, the peculiarities, the inner life of the pupil; a neglect to come into intimate and tender sympathy with him, and then to ply him with such labors as are suited to his tastes, his talents, his powers of endurance, and his susceptibility of thinking. Instead, the almost universal habit is to treat all with the same diet, and to dole it out from the text-book by the page, and if all do not fatten alike on this unvarying regimen, the *fortunates* are pronounced apt to learn, and are petted, while the *unfortunates* are classed as dunces and blockheads, and, if they ever know anything, it is what they learn outside of, or after they leave school. The result is, that the pupil's individuality is not recognized, and consequently is not de-

* Quoted in Report of the School Committee of Boston, 1863, page 13.
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veloped; and routine teaching settles down like night upon the school, from the mere force of habit and example.

But illiberal and unsound education is not confined to the primary school. The results of the errors to which we have alluded are propagated and multiplied as we ascend. There is perhaps no branch of study which appeals so strongly to the wonder, the curiosity, and the imagination of the pupil, as that of Geography. It has to do with strange lands and scenes, from the sterile and monotonous regions of the poles, to the boundless verdure and magnificence of the tropics,—the fauna and flora scattered up and down the earth, filling every region with life, activity, and beauty. It has to do with the great deep, with the currents, which, like the veins in the body of a huge monster course through every part, with its fleets that sail to distant climes, and its balmy breathings upon the land. In the hands of a living teacher fully imbued with his subject, and with the spirit of a master, such a science as this is fitted to awaken the liveliest interest, even the intense enthusiasm of the pupil. But with the ordinary teacher the results attained are the memorizing a few facts and figures, and names and distances, bald and bare, wherein the pupils memory is exercised and his powers of application and plodding are increased, but wherein the true field of his labors is scarcely entered and the rich rare fruits are left unplucked. To remedy the evil an attempt has been made to treat Physical Geography as a separate branch, for more advanced and mature studies, and of thus divorcing Physical from Political and Mathematical Geography. But this is reversing the true and natural order, and adding to the unsoundness of the ordinary course. A knowledge of the physical features naturally precedes that of the political and mathematical, and should form the basis and framework of every other part of the science.

But even more striking than in any other common school branch are the defects in the ordinary teaching of grammar. The end which seems to be aimed at by the course pursued, is to enable the pupil to *parse*, or what is equivalent, to *analyze*, analysis being merely an abridged form of parsing. From the beginning to the end of the course, mattering little how long continued, the labors are chiefly directed to the accomplishment of this result; and it is not an occurrence at all unfrequent that the pupil when he has completed his grammatical studies, uses incorrect language in conversation, and has little facility in graceful or even correct writing. We judge of a tree by its fruits. And if after years of labor and study he is unable to speak or write with propriety, the course pur-

sued must be regarded as unsound. Indeed, a casual examination of the subject will convince one of the justness of the conclusion, and that the results are such as we ought to expect. If the pupil devotes himself to the study of the principles, the rules and exceptions of a grammar, and simply learns, as a result, to apply these principles to parsing, it can not be expected that the power and facility of expressing thought will be materially increased thereby. If one wishes to become a practical surgeon, he is not satisfied with the study of the principles of anatomy and rules for manipulating with surgical instruments; but he enters the dissecting-room and by long continued and careful practice under the eye of a competent instructor he tests rules and principles by trial-practice, until he acquires skill in the art. So in music. One may study rules for fingering and playing the scale all his days, and unless he practices, and develops a familiarity with its execution by repeated efforts, his studies will be fruitless.

To teach the use of language successfully it must be developed from within, by a judicious training and use of those gifts which the Creator has implanted there. A memorizing of the rules of grammar and of parsing, even of idiomatic phrases is not the method of developing language which nature would seem to indicate. For, after all our reasonings and plans of education, the correctness of our course must be decided by an appeal to the nature and constitution of the faculties and the conditions of their growth.

It is impossible in a study so noble, so comprehensive, and so beautiful as that of language to inspire the pupil with a love for its investigation and a taste for the graces of speech by compelling him to commit to memory and to apply in parsing, the dry rules and exceptions of the text-book. It can only be effected by the inspiration of the teacher who is himself in love with the theme.

But meagerness of results in the cultivation of the gift of language is not confined to the study of grammar in the common school. It is a matter of doubt in the minds of many whether the culture actually derived from the study of Latin and Greek in our higher institutions, by the course of instruction commonly employed is truly liberal, and what it ought to be, or whether it bears a reasonable proportion to the time and labor spent upon them. We have at the present time some hundred and thirty colleges in the United States, graduating annually some two thousand students with the degree of Bachelor of Arts, all studying the ancient languages, and yet where are our real classical scholars,—that is those who pursue a generous course of reading of classic authors aside

from the mere text-books of their college days? It would not surprise us if the number in a generation could be counted upon one's finger-ends.

But suppose we make the standard of judgment less severe. How many of the boys who are reading the classic authors in our colleges have a taste for, and a just appreciation of the writings of those immortal authors? Does the eye sparkle with delight and the heart thrill with joy in recognition of great thought and noble sentiment? It is feared that there are few whose hearts are thus touched and warmed. It would perhaps be nearer the fact to believe that the thrill of joy and sparkle of the eye has been oftener occasioned by the escape from a recitation, or the striking of the bell which proclaims the lesson ended. Is it a practice at all common among students to consult the opinions and principles of a Greek or a Latin author in order to be influenced by them, or to discuss them, or does he often take the pains to read a line beyond the lesson prescribed?

We may take even a still lower standard of criticism. From four to six years are spent in the study of Greek and Latin, for the purpose as is alledged, of the discipline and the culture which is thereby acquired—that is, culture and discipline in the use of language. And yet how many of all those who study the classics are ever materially influenced in their style of thought, of conversation, of writing, by the classic authors! We rarely recognize the severe style of the old authors in the students' exercises. Do they in reading the text of these languages comprehend the idea of the author, or recognize the peculiar style in which he writes? If we are to judge by the tone and modulation of their reading it would be inferred that the almost universal practice is simply to call the words without regard to the style or even the thought of the author. In making the translation, too, it is rare that they succeed in framing the English so as to preserve the peculiarities, or even the essential qualities of the style in the original. It is true that the pupil learns the meaning and derivation of the words in ordinary use, and to explain the constructions peculiar to the language. If a phrase is found idiomatic the rule or exception of syntax is searched for which covers the case, and the pupil thus succeeds in turning a dead into a living language. But even here there is often a lack of taste and discrimination exercised in making the translations. It is often indifferent English, and sometimes not even grammatical.

About one-half the time spent in a collegiate course, and in

preparation therefor, is given to these studies. Are the fruits which result therefrom to the mass of those who pursue them truly liberal and satisfactory? Is it economical for all those desiring a liberal education to pursue them? These are questions which we should not fear to propose and to discuss.

But waiving their consideration for the present, let us examine the changes which have taken place in the course of study required for what is termed a liberal education. The American college was modeled upon the plan of the English colleges which are the tributaries to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; the office of the latter being to grant degrees to pupils presented from the former as ready for graduation. In the early American college the course of study consisted in the main of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics. The time devoted to this course, after a preparatory training, was four years. The pupil was constantly, and, as is believed, profitably employed upon these studies. But since the establishment of the first colleges in this country, great progress has been made in all the natural and experimental sciences. The boundaries of knowledge have been greatly enlarged. Consequently new branches of learning have from time to time been introduced, until at present some twenty-five new studies have been added to the curriculum. There are embraced in a full college course, as at present pursued, Latin, Greek, Mathematics—comprising Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry plain and spherical, Surveying, Nautical Astronomy, Analytical Geometry, Analytical Mechanics, Differential Calculus, and Celestial Mechanics; Ancient and Modern History, Botany, Physiology, Zoölogy, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Civil Engineering, Analytical Chemistry, Rhetoric, Logic, Political Economy, Constitution of the United States, French, German, Italian or Spanish, Ethics, Evidences of Religion, Psychology, Essay writing, Declamations and Elocution. Such is the schedule of the studies which a boy is required to pursue in order to graduate at the present time. It embraces the elements of nearly all the sciences which have been systematized. Being considered as an exhaustive survey of the whole field of inquiry, it is regarded as a very liberal course of study. The colleges of the United States have adopted substantially the same course, and with what facilities they have, are teaching it.

This course of study, when compared with that which was adopted by the colleges in the early history of the country, presents a striking contrast. If four years were then profitably employed in the study of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, is the same period

now more profitably employed upon a course where there have been added some twenty-five new branches? Is the education derived from the latter course more liberal than that secured by the former? There has been no decrease in any studies, but a constant increase; even more both of classics and mathematics being required now than formerly. The question seems to resolve itself into this form—if eight ounces of bread are sufficient for a man's breakfast, and his hunger is therewith satisfied, will his appetite or his condition be improved by compelling him to eat forty ounces.

Could a revelation have been made to an educator living towards the close of the eighteenth century, of the change to be made in the course of collegiate studies in the succeeding half century, what would have been the tenor of his reflections in reasoning upon its probable effect! Would they not have been something like the following: At present the pupil has no more studies than he is able successfully to master. He can pursue a branch continuously and without interruption. Time is given for reflection and careful investigation. The mind is held delighted with the grandeur and beauty of the truths he investigates. What is learned is received with a hearty relish. Rest and relaxation succeed to toil, and the mind is strengthened and invigorated in conformity to the natural laws of growth.

But, if twenty-five new branches be added to the present course, and the time for pursuing them remains the same, the pupil will find himself beset and harassed with severe labors on every side. With an average of forty weeks of study to the year, he has in four years one hundred and sixty weeks. At a moderate estimate one-third of this time must be devoted to the classics, leaving, we will say, one hundred weeks, which, divided among twenty-five studies, will give about four weeks, on an average, to each. The time that can be devoted to each study will thus be reduced to an amount entirely out of proportion to that required for the thorough mastery of any science, or, if the time is protracted by pursuing a number of branches coördinately, he will find his labors so broken and distracted by other labors pressing upon him, that he will become disengaged and dispirited. He will go daily to the recitation-room with a feeling of dread, or if he is able to master his lessons thoroughly, so as to stand up creditably in his class, he will find that the constant wear upon his physical and nervous energies will be fatal to that healthy growth and development which his education ought primarily to secure. He will learn to prepare for a recitation and an examination, and when these are past he will be glad to dismiss

from his thoughts what has been associated in his mind only with pain. He will have neither the time, the inclination, nor the energy to follow out the results of his studies, nor to pursue a full course of reading upon the subjects to which he has attended. At the expiration of the time that can be given to one text-book, he will be hurried into another, and thus to the end. The true aim of his labors will hardly be thought of, beyond that of being able at the close to attach the first two letters of the alphabet to his name, and of passing as one who is liberally educated.

Such would naturally be the course of reflection of one looking prospectively upon the changes to be effected. And what are the opinions of those who have had experience in collegiate education, after fifty years have elapsed, and the changes incident have actually taken place?

Edward Everett, and no better authority upon a topic like this can be cited, said in his inaugural address as President of Harvard University, "The objection lies rather in the other direction, namely, that the student is taken over more ground in a short time than he is able thoroughly to explore; and that, of the branches of study to which his attention is called, all can not be equally important for the future uses of life in its various callings. These difficulties are usually serious, and among those with which it is hardest to deal. They are the direct opposite of those which were felt under the ancient systems of education, in which what Lord Bacon calls the professorial branches, principally the divinity, rhetoric, and logic of the schools were exclusively taught; and as far as the attainment of useful knowledge goes, scarce anything was done in the way of direct preparation for the secular callings of life. In striving to remove these objections our seminaries have perhaps gone to the other extreme. They have so multiplied the list of academical studies, that in the period of four years assigned to the collegiate course—with the usual allowance for vacations—three months is the aggregate of the time which would be given to any one branch, if equal attention were paid to all, reckoning the two ancient languages but as one study and the modern languages as another."

Dr. Pusey in a letter to the vice-chancellor of Oxford University, England, thus remarks upon this subject: "It is absolutely necessary at present, to make some provision towards relieving the candidates for honors. Because we have so far simply added greatly to their burdens; we have imposed upon them a double examination, and a certain quantity of Natural Philosophy, and we have given them no assistance or compensation whatever. Unless we do

something in this direction, the measures which we have agreed upon in convocation will break down altogether."

President Wayland, in his admirable work on University education in Great Britain and America, in speaking upon this topic, uses the following very strong and pointed language: "Can the work that is marked out in the course of studies in any of our Colleges be performed in four years? Is there any proportion between the labor to be done and the time in which it is to be accomplished? * * * The course of study in the English Universities is extremely limited, the students enter the University from the best of grammar schools, and yet those who are candidates for honors are obliged to study industriously, and frequently intensely. If this is, therefore, a fair measure of what a student can do, what must be the result if three or four times the amount of labor be imposed upon him? It must be evident that he can not do it well."

"It is a remarkable circumstance," says Sir William Hamilton, that, before the invention of printing, Universities viewed the activity of the pupil as the great means of cultivation, and the communication of knowledge as only of subordinate importance; whereas, since that invention, Universities, in general, have gradually allowed to fall into disuse the powerful means which they possess of rousing the pupil to exertion, and have been too often content to act as mere oral instruments of information, forgetful, it would almost seem, that Fust and Coster ever lived. It is acknowledged, indeed, that this is neither the principal nor the proper purpose of a University. Every writer on academical education from every corner of Europe proclaims the abuse."

The view we were led to anticipate, is thus confirmed by the deliberate opinions of those who confessedly stand at the head of scholars and teachers. It would seem, then, that even in the highest grade of academic culture, there are defects. The College, which, *par excellence*, is characterized for giving a liberal education, is giving an education which, in some respects, is illiberal and unsound. In that very particular in which, at first view, it would seem that the College is justly entitled to the character of being liberal, namely, in the comprehensiveness and exhaustiveness of its course of study, in that is found one of its serious defects. The great number of studies pursued in a limited time, embracing, as it does, nearly the whole range of the sciences, instead of making it liberal and complete, is an element of its illiberality and unsoundness.

It is a fact that can not be disguised, that the respect and confidence once entertained for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, has been

seriously impaired, and may we not look for its explanation in the changes to which we have alluded? As for the degree of A. M., it has no significance whatever beyond that of A. B. It is the index or exponent to the fact that at least three years have elapsed since graduation. It is conferred on any one who applies at the end of that time, whatever may have been his occupation. Why grant this second degree if merely time, with no additional culture, be required? Or rather, would it not be advisable, if the degree is to be granted, to require that a liberal course of study be pursued as a pre-requisite, and thus give it a meaning and a value?

From the views which we have presented, it would appear that there are defects in education, as well in the higher institutions as in the primary and common schools; that there is lack of judgment and skill exercised in arranging the order and course of studies; that there is, to some extent, a failure to give a truly liberal culture, which is the pupil's right at every stage of his progress.

Having thus freely pointed out some errors in education, it becomes us to inquire for the cause of the evils of which we complain.

It would seem that, to any reflecting mind, there can be but one cause assigned. Education has never been treated as a science, nor teaching as a learned profession.

In almost every other field of inquiry the results of investigation are more definite and satisfactory than in this. In the practice of this art the rankest empiricism prevails. How could we expect the results to be other than unphilosophic and crude.

Teaching is itself an art. But all art is based on science. There can be, therefore, no certain approximation to perfection in the art except through the attainment and application of scientific principles.

The teacher may disregard science. He may learn to teach by observing how others do it. He may thus imitate and may habitually and very conscientiously repeat the copy to others; but he has thus only learned to follow a copy, and can only teach others an imitation. This is the method of the empiric.

But teaching can not rest upon a foundation so narrow and insecure. Empiricism, it is true, is the mother of science, inasmuch as it precedes it, and from it science is developed. We learn a thing empirically before we do philosophically. But empirical knowledge can not satisfy a reflecting mind. It does not rest contented with a fact. It turns back and traces its history—its cause. Thus, to perception succeeds reflection. The mass of the human family never stop to pursue the latter process; hence, the reason why so many are satisfied with empiricism.

The teacher should not, then, rest satisfied with the imitation of his model. He should seek the philosophical explanation of the copy, analyze and clearly seize the principles that expound how it is, and why it is. He is then, no longer an empiric, a mere imitator, but he has the resources within himself to become an independent artist.

The Creator has established laws for the development of the human faculties. Those laws are fixed and immutable. And though there are differences of temperament, of passion, of will, yet the development of these faculties proceeds upon principles which are common to all and in all generations. If a human being is found in whom the growth of the mental powers does not proceed in conformity to these principles, he is regarded as an anomaly. These laws are as uniform and as unvarying as those which govern the anatomical structure of the human system, and we calculate with as much certainty upon the operation of their conditions, as upon the circulation of the blood, or upon the existence of the delicate ramifications of the nervous system. These laws are equally susceptible of being reduced to system, to science.

And yet the operations of these laws have been less subject to the tests of reason and reflection, than almost any other department of human wisdom. Where is the Cuvier or the Agassiz of the teaching science! The laws of form and number, among the most beautiful which the mind is capable of conceiving, have been traced out and expressed, even to the conception of those sublime forces which govern the masses of the material Universe. History has been read by the light of Philosophy, and its several sciences have been subjected to the severest tests of analytic acuteness, and the elements reduced to the most surprising and unexpected simplicity. But we search in vain for any work upon the science of Education, that science of all others the most noble, the most comprehensive, that is in any way exhaustive or satisfactory.

It is true that great improvements have been made in teaching during the last half century. We have, as it were, been feeling our way in the dark, and have gradually been coming to the light. To the beginning of the eighteenth century, education was abandoned almost exclusively to routine teaching. But at its opening that intellectual movement which began, that spirit of inquiry which was aroused and which has resulted in the splendid triumphs of modern science, was felt also in education. Education began to be subjected to the tests of method and reflection. The leading improvement which has resulted, and which has been introduced into our modern

systems of instruction, is analysis. From this have originated the most satisfactory and surprising results. But in the application of this admirable method, and in its relation to other methods, we are still wandering with uncertain step. Of this fact, the errors to which reference has been made bear ample testimony.

Education, therefore, has not as yet been fully treated as a science. It is equally and even more strikingly evident that teaching has never been a learned profession. Much may be said about the elevated aim of teaching, and its worthiness as a calling, and its claims to be ranked among the learned professions. These are indeed worthy themes, and the arguments by which they are established and defended are of the most weighty and convincing character. They are indeed unanswerable.

But the proof that teaching has an elevated aim, and is worthy to be ranked as a learned profession, can never make it such. Where are the members of this profession who have pursued a course of study in the science and in the practice of teaching? Where are the schools that are devoted to giving instruction in this science?

In Theology, in Medicine, in Law, and even in War, there are schools in which the theory and the practice of these sciences are thoroughly taught. These schools are designed exclusively to impart professional skill. Their courses of study are selected with this view. A learned body of men preside over them, and give instruction in the various departments. A person who has devoted himself to these studies, and has become thoroughly versed in the art which he is to practice, may justly be entitled to a rank in a learned profession.

But what is the fact in regard to teaching? There have been, it is true, within a comparatively recent period, Normal Schools established for preparing teachers.

But it is only the common school teacher who has, as yet, given any time to preparation in the Normal Schools. The teachers in the higher institutions have given no attention to professional training in schools established for the purpose, for no such schools exist. The Professor in a college is commonly selected on account of his eminence as a scholar; not because he manifests professional skill, and in some cases never having had a day's practice in teaching, till he is installed in the professor's chair. A man in middle life is appointed to a professorship. He has been a score of years graduated. He stood well as a scholar in his college days, has had ordinary success as a minister of the gospel; but has never had any

training or experience as a teacher, and from his temperament and habits would seem to have little aptness for the art. This is the history of many of his class.

The fact is notorious that the most brilliant scholar is often the most indifferent teacher. The reason is obvious. Without special training in the art of communicating truth, he who learns, as it were, by intuition, can not adapt his teaching to those who are slow of apprehension, who usually embrace a large portion of every class. Hence, the habit of selecting the teacher on account of his excellence as a scholar simply, without professional training, proves, in many cases, a lamentable failure.

Not only is there no preparatory professional training required for College Professors, but they do not keep up any professional organization, and have no periodical devoted to the discussion of subjects pertaining to the science and practice of teaching. The Professors of one college do not meet those of another college where the subject of teaching is discussed. They do not compare the principles of their practice, nor endeavor to elucidate the philosophy of their art. In some respects their practice is governed by no settled principles.

This statement may be confirmed by reference to a practice which was the subject of personal investigation. Being engaged some years ago in giving instruction in the Latin and Greek languages to boys, preparatory to their entrance to college, I was desirous of knowing what system of pronunciation of the ancient languages was likely to prevail among American scholars, that, by adopting it, my pupils might be correctly initiated in these studies. I accordingly addressed letters of inquiry upon this subject to several professors of languages of the greatest eminence. The replies to these letters represent the opinions and practice prevailing in colleges in the Eastern, Middle and Western States. That the result of these inquiries may be accurately represented, such extracts from the replies as relate to this subject, by permission of the writers, are given.

FROM CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., PROF. OF ANCIENT LANGUAGES IN COLUMBIA COLLEGE, N. Y.

In your favor of the eighth inst. you ask, "What pronunciation is eventually to prevail in this country in reference to the Greek and Latin languages?" The answer is not an easy one. As long as so many of our Colleges retain the English system, and so many of their graduates are employed in the business of instruction, this mode of pronouncing will naturally have the preponderance. It is, however, I am sorry to say, a system utterly erroneous, and can not, for one moment, compare with that followed on the continent of Europe, although this latter, too, labors itself under very grave errors. My own mode of pronouncing, and the one which I give to my pupils, is of an *eclectic* character, and professes

to cull from all systems whatever is good. It follows, however, the Continental method very closely. In Greek we give *prosody* a decided preference to *accent*.

FROM H. B. HACKETT, D. D., PROF. OF GREEK IN NEWTON THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL, MASS.

The want of uniformity in the Greek pronunciation is certainly a great evil. In my present situation I do not feel bound to train the students in that branch of study, as it belongs to the College. I was taught myself to pronounce according to the principles of our own language, and as a matter of habit have adhered to that system. I have thought that if I were a teacher of the elements of Greek, I should adopt the pronunciation of the modern Greek; first, because I am persuaded that it comes nearer to the old pronunciation than any other; and secondly, because it would form so easy a transition to the acquisition of the modern Greek. Some of our teachers follow that method, but it has not been general. At Cambridge, I believe they adopt a few of the sounds, but do not carry out the system fully. If the College Professors could be induced to adopt some rule or express some opinion on the subject, it would command attention and apply, at least, a partial correction to the evil. Our schools act so independently of one another, and our literary men are so little in the habit of consultation and personal intercourse, that it is likely to remain difficult to secure the agreement in such matters that would be desirable.

FROM JAMES R. BOISE, LL. D., PROF. OF GREEK IN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

In respect to the pronunciation of Greek and Latin, I am quite undecided. While in Europe, I became acquainted with the German method, but in my own teaching I have mainly followed the English, (except that I observe the Greek accent in my pronunciation.) Since I have been in Michigan, I have rather inclined to the Continental pronunciation of Greek, more as a matter of convenience than for any other reason, because the majority of those around me are accustomed to that method. I am also inclined to think that it will prevail more and more. I despair, however, of ever seeing in my day a uniform method adopted in this country, though with you I deem it a desirable object. In the present state of things I always advise others to follow whichever system best suits their own inclination.

FROM W. S. TYLER, LL. D., PROF. OF LATIN IN AMHERST COLLEGE, MASS.

It seems to me, that there are but two questions to be asked in regard to the pronunciation of the Greek and Latin, and according to the answer to these questions only three methods that can claim any serious consideration from English and American scholars. 1. Are they living languages still spoken by a people who have not only a national existence, but a literature still living? If so, then the usage of that people should govern the pronunciation of their language. In regard to the Latin no one will answer this question in the affirmative. In regard to the Greek there is room for difference of opinion, and I am by no means prepared to deny, indeed, I am rather inclined to believe, that scholars will at length adopt the modern Greek as the standard for the pronunciation of the ancient. 2. If the language is no longer living, can it be *ascertained beyond controversy* what was the pronunciation while it was yet living? If so, I think that pronunciation should be adopted. But if it can not be, or can be only to a limited extent, it is not worth while to try to follow mere whims and conjectures. 3. If the language is dead and its ancient pronunciation can not be ascertained, it seems to me that there is no other principle left to stand upon except for each country to follow the analogy of its own language. I have adopted this course hitherto in reference to Greek and Latin, and shall doubtless continue so to do with Latin, while in Greek I await the results of study and travel which may perhaps turn the scale in favor of the modern Greek.

FROM E. A. JOHNSON, LL. D., PROF. OF LATIN IN THE NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

The question which you propose is an important one, and not without its difficulties. It may be viewed in various relations, and according to the view

taken variously answered. Looking at the matter historically my impression is, that the attempt to restore, as far as possible, the vernacular pronunciation of the Latin, has been generally abandoned, and each nation has independently followed its own laws of sound, without regard to nearness of correspondence to the ancient. If the recovery of the true pronunciation, in a more or less perfect degree, is to be given up as an impossibility, or as a thing undesirable if attainable, then I do not see why each nation may not, within itself, arbitrarily follow its own rules and laws. Neither the French, the English, the German, the Italian, &c., is the old Latin, nor should either claim to be. On this view, too, it is of little consequence that one may chance to be a little nearer, in all probability, to the true pronunciation than another. But with us the question is more difficult than with the other nations above instanced. They, so far as I know, are generally satisfied with the pronunciation of the Latin which the application of the rules of their own idioms produces. Where, however, the English is the vernacular, two methods at least are advocated. These are sometimes called the English and the Continental methods. As between these two, the English method pursues one consistent plain course, not pretending in any sense to give the old Latin pronunciation, while the so-called Continental method goes but half-way, being neither the French, Italian, German, English, nor old Latin, in short, nothing that I know of but itself, so that, as a whole, I prefer for Englishmen the English, to the other, which may be called un-English, or unanything, rather than positively named. Of late, however, among us, the question has been agitated more with reference to a return to the old Latin pronunciation, so far as it can with tolerable satisfaction be recovered, and attempts are made to test the feasibility of applying this in practice in some of our institutions. I am not sanguine in regard to the success of this effort. Indeed, I do not see why the so-called Continental method should have stopped short of all that is now proposed, if it should be found to be easily practicable. The chief difficulty, to my mind, lies in the foreignness, to the English organs of speech and habits, of the sounds simple and combined, with their recurrence, their rapid utterance, and the accompanying gesticulation, of the languages of the Latin nations of Europe: for all these elements go to make up the true language and utterance of the old Latin and Grecian nations.

If it can be brought about as a general thing, that a truly good pronunciation of the Latin, as near, as we can learn it, to the old, shall be taught and learned among us, I shall be much gratified. If the result should be no better than in the case of the French, and other modern languages of Europe, which, I have often observed, are so imperfectly acquired, that the sounds are not true, and the utterance has nothing of the genuine character of the native speaker, I do not know that I should hesitate to prefer the English method in which I was first taught the Latin.

FROM JOHN L. LINCOLN, LL. D., PROF. OF LATIN IN BROWN UNIVERSITY, R. I.

The subject of the pronunciation of Latin has often troubled me, as I could not see any feasible way of introducing what seems to me on the whole the better method, without more loss of time on the part of my students than would be justifiable. The Continental method I suppose comes nearer to the ancient method than does the English and ours. The simple principle with us has been the analogy of our own language, without touching the question how the Romans originally pronounced, except so far as perhaps it was thought that that was a point not capable of being clearly determined. The Italian language, as well as the French and the Spanish, and most of all the Italian, have nearer affinities to the Latin than the English. It is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the Italian sounds, especially of the vowels, are nearer like the Latin, than the English are. Besides, historically, the Latin has been preserved and employed by writing, speaking and reading in an almost unbroken course in Italy, back through the middle ages, well nigh to the ancient times; and during all this period we know of no variation among the learned in Italy on this subject; and the sounds are substantially the same as those of the Italian language itself. There is also but little difference from the Italian in the pronunciation employed by all other nations on the Continent.

I quite agree with you about the importance of a classical convention. I

have, in former years, tried to stir up my classical brethren to such a meeting, and at one time we made a beginning, but no more. We met in Boston two years in succession about the time of the anniversaries, and the second time a committee was appointed to make arrangements for an association, but that Committee never reported, and there has never been another meeting.

We thus perceive that the practice among these several professors is very diversified. Dr. Johnson prefers the English method, while Dr. Lincoln prefers the Continental or rather the Italian for the Latin, but adheres to no system in his practice. Dr. Hackett prefers for the Greek language the modern Greek pronunciation. Prof. Boisse prefers the Continental method, but tells others to adopt that which they prefer, while he himself is governed by the Greek accent in pronouncing that language. Professors Goodwin and Sophocles, Professors of Greek in Harvard University, have each a different system of pronunciation which they adhere to in their teaching, Prof. Sophocles, himself a native Greek, discarding the modern Greek pronunciation. By the Roman method, which is advocated by many, and among others by Prof. Richardson of the Rochester University, we must not say Cicero and Caesar, but *Keekero* and *Kaizer*. While Dr. Anthor follows neither the English, which he thinks utterly erroneous, nor the Continental, which he favors, but has a sort of eclectic method, culling what he considers best from all systems. Such is the diversity which prevails. Indeed, the wonder among the builders of Babel, on the morning after the confusion of tongues, could not have been greater, than would be that in an assembly of Professors of Ancient Languages in our American colleges, were each to speak the tongue he teaches.

The plea may be made that these are not spoken languages, and hence it is a matter of no consequence how they are pronounced. But these languages are often quoted, and they are spoken as often at least as once a year in all the colleges; and is it a matter of no consequence that we are defeated in understanding what one attempts to say by diversity of pronunciation? As a matter of principle, as a matter of pride in having some national usage, and more than all, as a matter of convenience and system in the class-room, *it is* important that there be uniformity.

Besides, there must be some principles underlying this subject which, if developed, would be convincing, and settle this question. If not, if it be a matter purely conventional, then it could certainly be settled by mutual consultation. If teaching was really a learned profession, and its practitioners thoroughly indoctrinated in the science of education, such confusion and absurdity could never exist.

But not only is there diversity in practice and lack of personality

in teaching, but there is also great diversity of opinion, as we have already shown, respecting the courses of study, and the order in which the sciences should be pursued. Dr. Benjamin Pierce, acknowledged to be one of the profoundest thinkers of the age, declared, on one of the graduation days at the Lawrence Scientific School, that, in his judgment, a sound and healthy education could be obtained without studying the ancient languages.

This statement, however, does not imply that the ancient languages should be dropped from the curriculum, but that many of those who gain an imperfect knowledge of these branches, and hence reap little benefit from them, might obtain an education without them better suited to their wants. Could much of the descriptive portions of the Natural Sciences be learned in the primary and preparatory schools, and more time be devoted to Language and Philosophy in the college, it would doubtless prove a wholesome reform.

It is believed by many that in our primary education we strive to give discipline when we should be giving knowledge; that in our advanced schools we give knowledge when we should give discipline and discrimination.

But this diversity, while it indicates lack of research and definite knowledge upon the subject of teaching, in one respect gives a hopeful sign. Ignorance is usually a state of quietude wherein tradition is blindly followed. The period of inquiry which succeeds to this, is usually one of disagreement, of agitation, and unsettled state of opinion. It is like the period between daylight and dawn, wherein the outline of things is but dimly seen. But it gives promise of a glorious morn, wherein all things stand disclosed in a broad, clear light.

In considering, therefore, this subject of Liberal Education, there can be no harm in inquiring into any defects which may exist, and of endeavoring to ascertain whether the education we give is in *quality* as well as *quantity*, quite liberal and sound. The course of remark has been in no spirit of caviling or despondency, but of a simple seeking after truth, with a disposition to look the actual state of affairs full in the face.

We have endeavored to call attention to errors which seem to exist both in methods of teaching and in the order and course of study pursued, and to trace the cause of these evils to their origin.

The remedy which we propose has been intimated in discussing the cause. Education can never become truly liberal throughout all its grades, until it is regarded and treated as a science, and teaching as a learned profession.

It is a matter of humiliation that we have not in this country an institution with ample facilities for giving instruction of an exclusively professional character in teaching; an institution wherein those who are to give instruction in the colleges and professional schools, shall be specially prepared for imparting knowledge. There do not at present seem to be any marked indications of its speedy establishment. But the requirements are so reasonable, and the demands so strong, that they can not very long be resisted.

The field is ample, and promises rich and abundant fruits. Neither Kant nor Herbert Spencer, in their distributions of mental phenomena, has viewed the subject of mental development from the true educational standpoint, nor has either fairly interpreted nature. It remains for the last half of the nineteenth century to read well a science of Education, and to train a truly liberal Profession of Teaching.

XIII. REMARKS ON THE STUDY OF DIDACTICS IN COLLEGES.*

BY THOMAS HILL, D. D.,

President of Harvard College.

EDUCATION is of two kinds, general or liberal, and special or professional.

General or liberal education consists in that discipline and instruction which may conduce to the general perfection and improvement of the pupil, or, in the language of Bacon, may be for the glory of God and for the benefit of mankind. It may likewise be defined as that education which becomes the children of freemen or which fits the child to become a freeman.

This general education may vary according to the capacity of the pupil, and according to the amount of time which his circumstances allow him to take. In my judgment it should vary also according to the sex of the pupil. Women are evidently designed by their Creator for a different work from that of man. This design is manifested in the whole structure of their bodies, and in the whole temper of their minds. Up to the age of ten years the difference between girls and boys, is not sufficiently marked to make much difference in their schooling necessary; but at the age of fifteen, differences begin to show themselves very decidedly, and the girl, maturing more quickly, should then give herself more to the higher branches, which the man postpones to later life, or even omits altogether.

Special or professional education is that culture and instruction which fits the child for some chosen walk in life, some particular pursuit in art or science. All general education is to some extent also special, and all special culture has also a general effect. Such is the unity of the human soul that its culture in any single particular improves the whole; and on the other hand, the general cultivation of its powers increases its force in each—as is shown in a marked degree by the well-known fact that the ability of American workmen in special branches (such as cotton-spinning, watch-

* Abstract of a paper read before the National Teachers' Association at Ogdensburg, New York.
Aug. 10th, 1864.

making, machine-making, &c.) has been proved statistically to be in proportion to their general schooling.

Yet the distinction between general and special, or liberal and professional education, as given above, is real and important, and often neglected to the injury of the scholar.

The common school and the college are institutions for general education. The topics introduced in them ought therefore to be such, and such only, as are of general utility to the majority of men, or such as throw light on the whole course of subsequent study. Take, for example, Arithmetic as the subject of inquiry—should it be taught in schools and colleges, and if so, to what extent? To the first question there can be but one answer. Arithmetic is necessary to the understanding of every other subject; there is no object of thought to which considerations of number do not apply, explicitly or implicitly; Arithmetic must be taught therefore in liberal education. But to what extent? I answer in all its fundamental processes and principles, and in enough of its applications to practical matters to make those processes and principles familiar—no more.

The University differs from the College in adding professional schools where men pursue special branches, of value specially to men of special pursuits—Law Schools, Divinity Schools, Scientific Schools, Medical Schools. Sometimes young men enter these professional schools with a very imperfect general or liberal culture, sometimes, on the other hand, they make, first, the most extensive preparation possible, taking the whole course of studies in a college of high standard and then adding the professional course at the end. Undoubtedly these men make, other things being equal, the most useful men. It is not in the power of schools and teachers, by any amount of teaching, to turn a blockhead into a man of talent; but neither is it in the power of genius to be independent of all education. Given, however, two men of equal original power and temperament, and he will make the most useful and most truly successful man who prepares himself for his profession by the most extensive and thorough course of liberal and professional study.

Now the Normal School is a professional school. It teaches to teach. That pupil in the Normal School will make the best teacher who comes to the school most thoroughly prepared by a previous course of education.

I say the Normal School is a professional school. There is however a sense in which the study of didactics may be called a liberal study; it is, that every child may be considered prospectively as

the head of a family, and that the art of teaching is therefore of universal utility. On the other hand, the art of teaching and the science of teaching are *not* connected *directly* with the principal sciences in the hierarchy; and errors or ignorance in regard to teaching will not directly and seriously affect the pupils' views either of Mathematics, Physics, History, Metaphysics or Theology. And the universal utility of the art is somewhat confined to woman alone. She has the little children committed principally to her. In the course of God's holy Providence he puts woman in charge of little children; she stands as Jesus stands, and as he assures us his Father stands, ever waiting to be teacher and guide to the little ones and to minister to their happiness and progress.

If didactics belong then to general or liberal education, they belong to that division of it which attends to the culture of young women. They should be taught in those colleges which admit young women to their course; and in those which are designed only for young women.

Normal Schools should also be attached to our universities, and bachelors of arts who intend to teach should be urged first to take one or two years' special instruction in the art of teaching. The Normal Schools which are established independent of colleges, should have a course of instruction specially adapted for those who have previously taken a high collegiate course of instruction.

The mere appointment of a Professor of Didactics in each college would not, in my judgment, be wise. The undergraduate course is crowded with studies, and there would be no time to do justice to Didactics. (*But the establishment of a Normal School in a University, and of a special course for Bachelors of Arts in a Normal School, would be steps calculated to raise the standard of excellence required of teachers, and would lift towards its proper dignity the high profession of teaching.*)

Until these steps are taken it would undoubtedly be of advantage, as a temporary substitute, if the Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy, or other appropriate Professor, should incorporate into his course judicious remarks on the general principles of education, as his topics afford opportunity.

the educational foundations in this, but to allow the individual states to do whatever they may for the education of their citizens. In this condition most would prefer such a theory. A negative position will be taken and it is to be hoped that the movement will be so far successful as to have nothing but the best results. It will be one indicating that the whole country and the world outside will be more educated than before.

XIV. A NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

The history of education in different parts of the United States, especially in those which have given character to the movement, has been at first one of individual effort or of separate organizations. These powers have afterward been united to secure a common object, namely, the adoption of a complete system in each of the several States. In the States more recently admitted, a system of public instruction has been adopted with the organic law, but its practical working and adaptation to popular wants have resulted from a coöperation of separate agencies. In every case, whether the system has been the result of trial and experience, or has been transplanted, ready formed, to a new State, the plan has been one of a union of power and influence in a common head. Smaller organizations of teachers are represented in State Associations and these, again, culminate in the National Association. A Department of Public Instruction has official charge of the general educational interests of the State. To this department all educational officers are responsible and their course is guided by its direction. The general tendency to organized action in this form may be considered evidence that it is desirable, and that this system is the most efficient yet devised. From a similarity in the plan and operation of the State and general governments, we may infer the incompleteness of our national system of education and, at the same time, the manner of supplying the defect.

The following thoughts are presented in favor of establishing a national agency corresponding to Boards of Education and Departments of Public Instruction in the several States.

I. The adoption of such an agency would more fully insure the existence, prosperity and perpetuity of our institutions.

The primary idea of a republican form of government is that of a people governing themselves, of their yielding up, of their own accord and for the public good, such of their individual rights as would conflict with the rights of others. It is a concession by the

individual for the benefit of the public, in consideration of the advantages of society. The object is the promotion of the general welfare. As a result of this system there must necessarily be a conflict of judgment concerning the value of the rights of the individual, those of the public, and of the privileges enjoyed by the concession. The proper exercise of this judgment and of the power of self-control which results from it, can only exist where there is an intelligence to appreciate these rights and privileges. Mental culture is a necessity then to the exercise of the power of self-control by the individual. And since the government is an aggregation of individuals, all standing on the same level, politically, it follows that the education of the whole people is not only desirable, but essential to the national existence; if to the existence, then also to the perpetuity and prosperity of the nation.

The advantages of a well developed mind on the part of their rulers were appreciated by the nations of antiquity. The infant monarch was placed under careful instruction, and it was the greatest care of their wise men, their rhetoricians and their philosophers, to develop in his mind the qualities of a successful governor. Modern nations, appreciating equally the advantages of liberal culture, have spared no pains or expense in the education of their future sovereigns. In a republic every citizen is a sovereign. A single vote may determine the policy of the State, and the laws are made and executed by persons taken from the masses. Such being the prerogative and so great being the power of each individual citizen, the conclusion is forced upon us from another stand-point, that the national interests require a high mental culture of all the people.

For the accomplishment of this purpose, State governments are doing much, but their interests and those of the nation lie in the same direction. A National Bureau of Instruction could do much in advancing this great work. The different State systems, where there are any, are distinct from each other, having no official relationship whatever. For the attainment of a common object, their plans are wide apart. Each has its peculiar excellencies and the friends of each are conscious of its possessing serious defects. To assist in assimilating these systems, to bear their excellencies from one to another, to circulate the practical results of different theories and methods, and to publish valuable educational intelligence, might be a great and important object of a national bureau.

But there are several States which have, as yet, no system of popular instruction whatever, or, if any, it is very imperfect; and there is also a very large part of our domain which is yet unsettled.

These States embrace a large portion of our population and—with the territories—much the larger part of the area of our country. Not only would it be for their interests, but clearly a national benefit, if systems were established in these sections, as necessity requires, but it seems a duty devolving upon general government, for its own welfare, to see to it that the most efficient system and one suited to the spirit of republican institutions, is adopted.

II. Education should be nationalized.

I would not be understood to say that the people are not allowed to establish schools or that government does not foster education. Probably no nation has, from its own wealth, done more for the instruction of its people than this. But is this sufficient? Every government is based on some theory, and its success requires that its laws, its customs and the spirit of its people, harmonize with the peculiar character of its constitution. The monarchs of the old world educate their subjects, if at all, in a faith in their institutions, and wisely so; for if they succeed, they gain an intelligent, hence, a more powerful support to their measures; if they fail, they know that they will secure the equally strong opposition of intelligence.

Never before, in the history of the world, has there been a government on an extended plan, based, like ours, upon the entire equality of all its people in their political rights and duties. It has been customary to call the governments of ancient Greece and Rome and some in more modern times, republics; but they were not democratic republics. In the purest democracies of Greece the power was in the hands of a few. A large part of the population were *metics*, while the larger portion were in a state of bondage. In Rome there were different classes, each having its rights, but the most extended privileges were enjoyed by only a few. If history establishes any fact, it is that the rights of citizenship have never been so entirely bestowed upon the whole people as in this nation at the present time. In other important features is this government without precedent. The separation of the different departments, legislative, executive and judicial, and the selection, by popular choice, of persons with whom these powers are vested, have never before been carried to so great an extent.

These peculiarities of our government require that the spirit of the people shall be educated in conformity to them. Unless popular mind is trained in sympathy with republican ideas, or, if, under the right of freedom of opinion, aristocratic notions of society and of education are allowed, different castes of society will spring up, theories of a modified form of government will arise, popular faith

in a republic will be weakened, and its surest basis of support—the attachment of the people—will gradually crumble. If the spirit is not in harmony with the form, if the government has not in itself a vital power and energy which will mold popular sentiment and draw it to itself, then it must yield and adapt itself to the condition of society. Whenever, in the history of nations, the yoke of power has sat uneasily upon the necks of its subjects; whenever, from neglect or injustice, popular feeling has become estranged, a change of policy has been demanded by the people, and the government has generally been modified to meet their wants. Hence, not only the propriety but the necessity of the government's exerting its influence to encourage a system of education which shall harmonize with republican ideas and republican civilization. Aristotle says, "The most effective way of preserving a State is to bring up the citizens in the spirit of the government and, as it were, to cast them in the mold of its constitution."

III. A National Bureau would give a character to our educational system which its importance deserves, and would place it in a position where its influence would be felt with greater power in the improvement of the national mind.

It is the tendency of mind to become accustomed to surrounding circumstances. Many of men's notions of the relative importance of ideas and things around them are the teachings of external life. Among the Greeks, Athena was the goddess of wisdom, the symbol of thought and the patron of heroism among men. To evince their appreciation of these traits, to keep alive an admiration of them and to stimulate the minds of the people to their possession, the magnificent temple of the Parthenon, dedicated to her, was erected on the Acropolis and in it was placed her statue, carved by the hand of their master artist, Phidias. How much did the statues and costly works of art erected in the streets of Paris by Napoleon I, serve to nourish in the mind of the French people an almost adoration for that mighty spirit of the Revolution and an enthusiasm for his reign.

So it is in the field of thought. Whatever idea is held prominently before the mind, whatever is the idea of the controlling power, will, because of this prominence, ultimately prevail with the people. The experience of those present affirms this. Has a teacher a predilection for a particular branch of instruction? It will not be long after he enters his school before there will be a greater fondness, if not a decided preference, for that particular study. Even if no prominence be given to that study, the teacher's mental disposition will become so impressed upon his pupils by his acts

and his manner of thought, that the same bias will unconsciously be given to their minds. Men have often secured their objects by keeping prominently before the minds of those they would influence, the motives by which they are guided. The action of legislatures has been influenced by the continued presentation, in various lights, of a measure sought to be adopted. The philosophical tendencies of a period in history have been determined by the ideas of a few powerful minds then predominant in the realm of thought.

The direct inference from these examples is, that this nation, founded upon the mental culture of the people, and dependent for its prosperity upon their intelligent action, can most completely insure its success by giving to educational agencies the power and influence of national adoption.

XXV. TOWN, COUNTY, AND STATE ASSOCIATIONS

FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES.*

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THE great principle of association was first enunciated by the Creator in Eden, when the Lord God said, "It is *not* good that man should be alone." In the family, the tribe, the state, the nation; we find this great truth exemplified. All history, sacred and profane, develop this idea clearly. In the history and progress of civilization, we find that just in proportion to the perfection of this bond that binds man to his fellow, in the community; also in united effort for the development of a given theory, whether in government, science, art, or literature, strength is found for the accomplishment of anything within the range of human possibility.

In educational reform, this principle is indispensable to success. Isolated effort has accomplished much in every department of life. But what is individual compared with associated effort? An individual may be thoroughly versed in every department of learning; he may be apt to teach; have tact in management, power in government, and the "art Napoleon," in infusing his own ideas and spirit into the soul of his pupils, by a rigid discipline, careful training, and generous culture.

Here we may find progress, and in the right direction. Complete success crowns such efforts. But in this case, it is confined to a given locality, and circumscribed by very narrow limits. But let this same accomplished, successful educator enlarge the sphere of his action, by associating with the teachers of his town, or district, and still more important results will follow. In the first place, let the effort be informal and social; in the spirit of the learner, rather than that of the teacher; who should ever be ready to receive, while endeavoring to communicate truth. Thus confidence will be inspired, interest enlisted, a healthy public sentiment created, and hearty coöperation secured in the work of reform. Thus the way

* Delivered before the National Teachers' Association at Ogdensburg, N. Y., August, 1864.

may be prepared for a public movement of the town. Every instrumentality must now be brought to bear upon the friends of an improved system of education, and an elevation of the character of the schools of the town. In the public meeting a lecture may be given, an essay read, or discussion held, in which the reforms to be initiated should be clearly stated, and their importance magnified, by a fair contrast of the antiquated forms and methods of the past; and the soulless teaching, and irrational government of the schools, compared with that intellectual culture and parental discipline, found in a model school, and a well-trained family of the present; where love is the golden chain that binds all hearts, controls all action, and produces rich fruit. These meetings should be free and open to all, and the exercises untrammeled. Every teacher and parent should here feel at home, and at liberty to ask questions on any point relevant to the character of the meeting. The conversational, rather than the more formal meeting, will generally be the most interesting and useful in the commencement. In these exercises, systems of education, mental, moral and physical, methods of instruction, books, the order of studies in a given course, discipline and government, the warming and ventilating of school-rooms, and the seating of the same; all will receive attention; and in proportion to intelligent views and appropriate action, will contribute to a reform that must conduce to the elevation, progress, and happiness of all who come under their influence. By these instrumentalities and interchanges of views, new channels of thought are opened, new sympathies are developed, and a common bond of union created, which is full of promise for a glorious future. When a town has thus fairly initiated the work of reform, it will soon be seen that the circle of its influence is, silently it may be, but steadily enlarging, and anon the adjacent towns become interested and are desirous of securing similar results. The county now becomes the field, and each town is interested to secure the greatest amount of good, and is emulous of being second to no other in the county. What has been initiated in the town, is carried onward into the larger fields, and this becomes an object of great interest. The meetings now become proportionally more interesting, as well as larger than the town association. Power has thus been gained, and every movement carries with it an authority that commands the general respect, and coöperation of all thinking persons. In these primary meetings of the town and county associations, one of the first and most important efforts is the creation of a healthy, popular sentiment, in sympathy

with the general movement. The people must be made to see that their interests are deeply and directly involved; that they can not by any possible means contribute so directly to the wealth, prosperity, and happiness of the community, as by aiding in elevating and refining the public taste; promoting the highest tone of virtue and morality; raising the standard of popular education, and so far perfecting the same, that their children on attaining their majority, shall be men; having an intelligent and comprehensive idea of their interests, rights, and duties, social, relative, and public; that in any emergency, they shall not simply *know*, but know *how* to maintain and successfully perform them.

I think every intelligent observer of the times will agree with us in the idea, that in the history of the country, there never has been a period in which the great importance of a thorough education of the people, has been more imperative than in the present. Is it not heart-sickening in the extreme, to find in a survey of society, that the masses are under the control of a comparatively few designing men, and by them led or "like dumb cattle driven?" But let the people become thoroughly aroused to the importance of the interest we advocate, and they will see that to withhold their hearty coöperation, may prove the means of the destruction of those rights and privileges which they most love; the *destruction* of which would be the greatest calamity that could befall them. These primary associations of the town and county, naturally lead to the development of the institute for instruction, one of the most important means of improvement in the teacher. Here the teachers of a given locality meet at stated periods for the purpose of mutual improvement. All occupy a common platform, and all have a common aim; the elevation of the profession, the advancement and perfection of popular instruction, and the diffusion of correct views in every department of learning in the community.

With the town thoroughly awake and imbued with the right spirit, and the heart and soul of the county in unison with the same, then are we ready for a grand movement for the State association; an institution of the utmost importance in centralizing and unifying the educational energies of town and county, and thus bringing the power of the State to bear alike upon all parts of the Commonwealth.

In the enlarged field of the State there is abundant room, as well as occasion for the earnest, intelligent, and persevering labors of all interested in educational reform and progress. Here we shall find the zealous pioneer of the town association, and the warm-hearted

advocate of educational reform from the county. All now are prepared for simultaneous effort upon the State, and every interest concentrates upon this new basis of action. A conference of the leading minds of the State is held, views are interchanged, notes are compared, and the condition of the cause generally ascertained. A course of action is inaugurated, and an organization effected, the object of which is to enlist the friends of every educational department, effect such reforms as may be demanded, and perfect such a system of instruction as shall be equal to the wants of the State. With such a State organization, we think none can fail to see that the whole territory may be brought with comparative facility, under such influences as shall secure a healthy public sentiment in relation to popular education, and the elevation and prosperity of the schools of the entire State.

That such efforts as these have been remarkably successful in awakening interest, securing unity of action, and producing the most important results, is apparent in the numerous local and State associations formed in various parts of our country within the last twenty years. That farther efforts are still necessary, may be clearly seen in a survey of the States of the Union. In the seceded States, which we trust will ere long return to their allegiance, a large field will be opened where the most enlightened effort and intelligent action will be demanded to initiate such reforms, and prosecute such measures, as may secure to them the blessings of the wisest and most efficient system of public instruction. The new Territories and States which will soon be added to the constellation of States, will open new and inviting fields of labor, full of the promise of an abundant harvest. Our wisdom will be apparent in encouraging intelligent and associated efforts, for the promotion and establishment of the most liberal and comprehensive systems of education in every State of the Union.

XIV. OBJECT SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION

AS PURSUED IN THE SCHOOLS OF OSWEGO.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

In consenting to the publication of the following paper, read before the National Association of Teachers, at its last meeting, I am constrained, in justice to myself, to prefix a brief statement of the circumstances under which it was prepared.

Some two years since, I delivered an address before the New York State Teachers' Association. On that occasion I gave some account of my own peculiar work, the instruction of idiots. And as it seemed to me that my experience had some practical relations to the audience before me and to the topics just then somewhat prominent in the minds of American educators, I ventured to make the proper application. The "object system of instruction," so-called, was referred to at some length, and I indulged in some passing criticisms upon the peculiar methods of instruction adopted by the Home and Colonial Society of England, which some persons were laboring to introduce into this country.

That I was not a conservative in an obnoxious sense in my educational views, an outline of what was then said upon these two points will sufficiently show.

I attempted to set forth the doctrine, by implication rather than by any very distinct enunciation, that there were two kinds of knowledge, the one which may be styled natural and the other conventional. I remarked that the education related to the former began where instinct ceases, and consisted of a judicious ministering of the proper aliment to the intuitive powers. And I endeavored to point out the true function of the teacher, in respect to this natural education.

I then added that, as in point of time, so in harmony with the natural order of development of the human faculties, was it fit and proper that the acquisition of natural should precede that of conventional knowledge, and that the former was the best foundation for the superstructure of the latter. The summary statement of my argument upon the subject was, "that we should educate the senses and through the senses, the intelligence and will, and then apply and subordinate the engendered habits of accurate observation and the cultivated intellectual activity and power to a proper method of acquiring the elementary studies and their outgrowing attainments."

It seemed to me then that, if these views were correct, they had a twofold application. In the first place, that our system of primary school instruction, confining itself, as it had hitherto done, mainly to elementary studies of a conventional character, should be modified by the introduction of a preliminary class of exercises, designed especially to cultivate the faculties of observation. That the elementary branches should be taught in such a manner as not to blunt the perceptive faculties. Of course, the natural outgrowth of these two provisions would be, that the apparent acquirements of the school-room would represent the actual mental power and knowledge of the pupils.

In the second place, sympathizing, as I have before said, fully with the aims of those seeking reform in the principles and methods of elementary instruction, I yet could not fail to see or avoid making an application of the principles I had developed, to the correction of certain grievous errors some of these well disposed friends of education had fallen into.

I know how short is the usual school-attending period of the great mass of the children for whom our school system is framed. Avoiding, therefore, all educational scheming, I would have that system so sound in its principles, and so judicious in its methods, that it may leave these children, on the threshold of the apprentice stage of life, with all their natural endowments so brought into willing and active exercise by preliminary training, that nothing in the whole world of relation, designed for their improvement or pleasure, should be thereafter unappropriated; that by its thorough drill in the strictly elementary branches of learning, it should so furnish them with the keys to all educational knowledge, that their future attainments should be limited only by the necessities of their peculiar lot.

In noticing the English system of instruction mentioned, I dwelt mainly upon what I then regarded as its error in the introduction of science at too early a stage in the work of education, not only in the form of positive science, but in the scientific aspect in which the common matters of daily life and observation were treated, and also the abuse of language involved in their practice.

The errors into which I feared the over-zealous advocates of the "object system" might fall proved to be no chimeras. An evil, which, with the respect I felt for American teachers, I then deprecated as somewhat remote, has become more imminent. A foreign educational scheme, partial, bigoted, and unphilosophical, is now naturalized in the country, and its universal propagation demanded by zealous advocates. The "Oswego System" is the new impress that is to give it currency on this side the water.

To increase the deception, the very text-books of the English system have been brought over and (to the scandal of American publishers it must be confessed) with no alteration, save a little upsetting and a turning wrong end foremost of here and there a section, have been issued as of American authorship.

Impulsive friends of education have somewhat indiscreetly indorsed it, by speaking of Oswego as "the Mecca of American teachers;" and of the movement as "a reform which is welcomed by the best minds of the age, which has been prophesied and prayed for by the best lights of other years."

Even some persons, who should have been more discriminating, looking only at the motives of its partisans, have good naturally given it a vague countenance, as ladies sometimes give a "character" to a stupid or shiftless domestic, who "means well."

Besides, in the State of New York, legislation has been successfully invoked to establish a school for training teachers in the methods of a foreign school society—of dubious reputation at home—outside of its Normal School, which is supposed to have been created for the very purpose of educating teachers in the most approved methods of instruction of every grade and wherever originating.

With these circumstances in view, when invited to prepare a paper for the last meeting of the National Association of Teachers, on the "Object System," a sense of duty constrained me to accept. And I ventured on a discussion of the subject which I knew must be inadequate, if for no other reasons, that I was precluded from presenting the most obvious objections to the system, inasmuch as I had done this on a previous occasion, and because also the invitation I received from the Executive Committee of the Association rather limited me to a half hour and which I endeavored not to transcend.

THE OSWEGO SYSTEM OF OBJECT INSTRUCTION.

THE topic assigned me for the present half hour is the "Object System" of instruction. To avoid all misapprehension, I may say at the outset, that I shall confine myself mainly to some thoughts in connection with what is called in this country the "Oswego System." This is substantially a system of instruction transplanted from England, and known there as the Home and Colonial Society's system of instruction. The circumstances attending the adoption of this foreign system on this side of the water need not be stated, except in the most general terms. The zealous Superintendent of the public schools of Oswego, (whom I need not name,) in common with many holding similar relations to the schools of other cities, felt the need of some change in the methods of instruction prevailing in the primary departments. The want he felt he thought well supplied by the English system alluded to. With zeal and energy he set himself to the task of introducing it in his own proper field of labor. He has accomplished this—and more. We find the same system now urged upon the friends of education everywhere for a similar adoption. And so it comes fairly before a National Association of Teachers for discussion.

It hardly need be said to those who are familiar with the history of the educational reform, inaugurated in this country nearly forty years ago, that the new want I have spoken of, as being generally felt by a certain class, was not to be satisfied by the search for, or the finding of any new principles of education.

The new problem offered to those interested was, how shall we apply, in the earlier stages of school instruction, most wisely and most fruitfully, principles of education generally recognized and acknowledged in this country?

I say generally recognized and acknowledged in this country. This is not too much to say, for here more than elsewhere—almost only here—were sound principles and methods of instruction generally prevalent. The reasons are obvious. The American mind is unusually active upon educational subjects, for theoretically our republican form of government is based upon universal education, and an education not peculiar to a caste or rank in society. Again, the great majority of our educated men have been practical teachers for longer or shorter periods of their lives. Look for a moment at the history of education during the period mentioned, a history adorned

with the names of many eminent men. A history that furnishes abundant evidence of much thought in the elucidation of principles and in the devising of methods. Notice the machinery of the educational movement; the essays and discussions, the public addresses and the multiplied associations for mutual improvement; the Teachers' institutes and the Normal schools; the literature of the profession of the teacher embracing everything worthy of record, whether in the way of personal thought or individual experience, the world being tributary; not forgetting the periodical contributions from every quarter. Further, mark the resulting evidence of all this labor well performed in the general public interest, in the judicious legislation, and in the wonderful improvement in text-books. And again, notice the light incidentally furnished by special systems of education. The result of this general awakening in the public mind upon the subject of education, I hardly need to say, though reaching to the principles most fundamental, was not manifested by measures violent, hasty, or subversive. *The reform kept step with the advance of an enlightened public sentiment, if at times it were one step in advance. It were well if the future waves of improvement in the same direction should roll as quietly and steadily forward on the shores of coming time.

But a graded system of school instruction brings out a new want. A large class of children are brought together, with little or no previous instruction, and almost too young for the continuous attention and thought required to master the elementary branches of the school-room, as taught in the ordinary way. They are deprived of those educational influences that so pervaded the atmosphere of the school-room of mixed grades and which insinuated themselves into every avenue to the active mind of childhood. They are now dependent for improvement upon the exercise of their own intuitive powers and upon the resources of the teacher.

We need not stop to discuss the question, whether, viewed in relation to the proper orderly and harmonious development of their faculties, these children should be in school at all, thus early, for in school they are. And so it happens, that under the new circumstances, that which should be the work of nature, is brought within the function of the teacher, and accordingly new topics and methods of instruction must be introduced. It hardly need be pointed out with what extreme diffidence we should approach any task that involves any interference with nature's methods, or how zealous should be the endeavor when such interference is necessitated to follow her analogous teachings, and how promptly we should cease our inter-

ference at the first moment practicable. The natural channels to the pupil's mind are first to be opened before they can be used for receiving or imparting instruction. Again, the natural avenues are to be used before what may be called the conventional ones are brought in requisition. And so the powers of observation and speech (or spoken language) are to be cultivated before any positive instruction in reading and writing is attempted. Cultivated it should be remembered for purposes and ends mainly practical and disciplinary. Has it occurred to those of you who have seen blind children spelling out with busy fingers and delighted faces the page of raised letters and thus receiving food for their active minds through a channel wrought out for them by the agency of a sense perverted from its legitimate function, that in teaching ordinary children to read from the printed, or written page, the same thing is substantially done; that is, the eye is made to perform the natural office of the ear—that a new gift is imparted.

One result of bringing together children of the same grade is, to bring out more distinctly the class mental peculiarities, the class educational needs, and so more obviously the proper modes of meeting those needs. I have elsewhere stated, in a summary way, my idea of the scope and aim of a proper elementary education, which I will venture to reproduce. "That we should educate the senses and through the senses, the intelligence and will, and then apply and subordinate the engendered habits of accurate observation and the cultivated intellectual activity and power, to proper methods of acquiring the elementary studies and their outgrowing attainments."

In seeking to accomplish the ends thus defined, the main reliance of the educator is upon a proper study and comprehension of the characteristics of childhood, the natural order, mode, and rate of development of the childish faculties. The proof of this is furnished by recalling any synoptical statement of the principles of education, and noticing how many of them relate to these very points. It is of importance to remember this because much time and labor have been lately wasted in devising methods of instruction based upon foundations merely speculative, and some injury done by attempting to put these methods in practice. I may illustrate this by citing two or three forms of theoretical error in this regard representing quite a diversity of opinion—all "idols of the cave."

The first of these is a method based upon a theory that every child must "rediscover for himself the truths and results to be acquired in each department of knowledge undertaken by the learner," and the corollary from this, "that no truth or knowledge which is

in its nature a consequent on some other truths or knowledge can by any possibility be in reality attained by any mind, until after that mind has first secured and rightly appreciated those antecedent truths or knowings." This involves, it will be observed, a form of instruction always absolutely synthetical. This is partially true —true as far as intuitive education is concerned and true no farther.

Another error, not unheard of by this Association, is a theory that there is a rational order of development in the course of the sciences, and that it ought to be followed in common education; for the reason that it is claimed that this order of succession in the sciences corresponds precisely to the order of evolution of the faculties. Now this is an assumption based upon the most fanciful analogies, but as I find it asserted with great emphasis, in a report to which my own name is signed, I leave it for others to deal with.

One other theory deserves a passing notice. It will be found elaborated by Herbert Spencer and cropping out quite generally in the essays and discussions that have since appeared upon educational topics. After admitting the distinction between education as relates to discipline and to the value of the knowledge acquired, he at once assumes that what is best for the one end is also best for the other. He then proceeds to develop a scheme for education based upon the relative and practical uses of knowledge. If his course of reasoning proves anything it proves that physiology should be the first study of childhood, then the means of getting a livelihood, then the treatment of offspring and the government of children, and finally the study of social science.

Let me now examine briefly the mode in which the Oswego System aims to accomplish the ends I have supposed. To be sure it claims to be more than a system of Primary School instruction. It claims to be the only correct system for any stage of education. "That if adopted, it will lead to a complete revolution in our methods of teaching in this country," (where it is asserted "we have never had any system based on sound philosophical principles,) as also in the profession of teaching itself, or rather it will *make teaching a profession*—a title it has yet to earn."

In making a somewhat hurried preparation for the part assigned me on this occasion, I have spent some time in the examination of the various manuals designed for the instruction of teachers in the new system. I confess the result has been somewhat discouraging. The principles laid down are somewhat contradictory in their character. They are wanting in definiteness, and, most of all, they are

so enveloped in the voluminous details of methods, that it is difficult to discover the distinctive features, and somewhat confusing to one attempting to discuss them.

Referring then to the Oswego manuals, I find first a statement of what are called Pestalozzian plans and principles. On examination, I find that some latitude has been used in applying the term Pestalozzian. Transmutation as well as translation will be seen in their treatment of the great reformer. It may be remarked of these generally, that whatever of them are sound have not the claim of novelty to American teachers, and what are new of no value, if not leading to positive error.

1. Activity is a law of childhood. Accustom the child to do—educate the hand.
2. Cultivate the faculties in their natural order—first form the mind, then furnish it.
3. Begin with the senses, and never tell a child what he can discover for himself.
4. Reduce every subject to its elements—one difficulty at a time is enough for a child.
5. Proceed step by step. Be thorough. The measure of information is not what the teacher can give, but what the child can receive.
6. Let every lesson have a point, except in junior schools, where more than one lesson is required before the point is reached, each successively tending towards it.
7. Develop the idea—then give the term—cultivate language.
8. Proceed from the known to the unknown—from the particular to the general—from the concrete to the abstract—from the simple to the more difficult.
9. First synthesis, then analysis—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature.

Let us examine these principles briefly.

“1st. Activity is a law of childhood. Accustom the child to do—educate the hand.”

It will be observed, first, that there is an implied restriction of this law of childhood to his physical system. Of the second clause—should it not rather be said, let the child do. Let him use not only his hands, but his physical system generally. The distinction between letting the child do and accustoming him to do, at this early stage, is an important one, and is related (if activity is a general law of childhood) not only to physical actions, but also to the senses and the faculties which act spontaneously on the presentation of their proper objects. Should not a system of so much pretension direct us wisely here on the very threshold?

“2d. Cultivate the faculties in their natural order—first form the mind, then furnish it.”

The truth enunciated here is older than Pestalozzi; and may be found in some form or another in half the works on education published in this country during the last thirty years. As to the second

clause, one might naturally ask, is it a corollary from the first? or only meant as a reiteration? or what?

"3d. Begin with the senses, and never tell a child what he can discover for himself."

What is the designed relation between the two clauses of this rule? Must we never tell a child what he can discover for himself?

"4th. Reduce every subject to its elements—one difficulty at a time is enough for a child."

This seems a harmless proposition. But the practical inferences in the way of method, that the manuals are full of, gives it another aspect.

"5th. Proceed step by step. Be thorough. The measure of information is not what the teacher can give, but what the child can receive."

Would not these directions indicate that the process of education is not always and strictly a development exercise, in which the child is the main actor?

"7th. Develop the idea—then give the term—cultivate language."

If this rule were designed only to enforce the truth that ideas should precede language, no comment would be necessary. But herewith is connected one of the most vicious methods of the Oswego System. In the light of their practical teachings it means that with the idea the term must be invariably connected; that the observation and language must be inseparably connected. And it is assumed that when the idea is mastered, there is no difficulty in retaining the appropriate term on the part of the pupil.

It is claimed that the peculiar phraseology of the summary is strictly a resultant of the workings of the class mind. And so we find in connection with each lesson, or series of observations, the W. B. (writing on the board) and the S. R. (simultaneous repetition) to fix in the pupil's mind the set phrase and the stereotyped formula that the teacher furnishes as the summary of the particular class exercise.

But the partisans of the Oswego System, or their progenitors in England, were not the original sinners. It was precisely here where Pestalozzi went so grievously astray from his own early principles, as to draw from one of his contemporaries the remark, that "he kicked over with his feet what he built up with his hands." And these very practices of his have been discarded by intelligent educators everywhere, even when professedly following the doctrines of the German school.

"Observation (said he) is the absolute basis of all knowledge.

The first object, then, in education must be, to lead a child to observe with accuracy; the second, to express with correctness the result of his observations." There is abundant evidence from his works that he did not mean by this, that observation should be the principal object of instruction at its earlier stage and language at a later period. The English and Oswego disciples have faithfully copied the defects of their master.

Now is it necessary to affirm in this presence, that language has absolutely nothing to do with observation as far as it concerns the pupil? That the observing powers are exercised for a long period in childhood before the gift of language is received, and that the child not only uses the senses, but discriminates, compares, reasons, judges, decides, and wills in connection with such use of the senses, and all this without the use of any language?

But the time comes when language is necessary for the expression of wants and ideas, and then it is given. In the roll of education the teacher avails himself of this natural gift, this child-language, to test the progress of the child, and so it is properly connected with observation and with the growth of ideas.

Again, a period comes when language which has been acquired intuitively, and without any conscious effort on the part of the child, may be properly a subject of positive instruction, by methods so wisely suggested in the opening address of the President of this Association; for when the higher and reflective powers of the mind are brought into active exercise, language precise and adequate becomes necessary as the means of thought.

Language (let me repeat again) which in the infancy of the individual, as well as that of the race, is a mere means of expressing the immediate wants of the individual or the race in its then condition; expands not only commensurately with increasing desires, but absolutely acquires another function; that is, as the instrument of higher, continuous, and abstract thought; and this fact, or the growth of language to meet social needs, suggests the principle that should guide in the introduction of language, as an exercise in the school-room. I have on another occasion referred to this topic and so I can only hint at the dangers of thus early and intimately connecting the study of language with the development of the faculties of observation. The thing signified is lost in the effort to remember the sign. Have you not all seen a bright boy in a class, who could and would answer almost intuitively a question in numbers like the following, hesitate and stammer, grow confused and fail, in attempting to cloak the fully comprehended truth in the long syllogistic formula required of him by the teacher? Thus—

If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, what will 4 bunches cost? The pupil repeats the question and gives the solution.

If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, what will 4 bunches cost? 1 bunch of matches will cost one-half as much as 2 bunches of matches. If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, 1 bunch of matches will cost one-half of 4 cents, which are 2 cents. 4 bunches of matches will cost 4 times as much as 1 bunch of matches. If 1 bunch cost 2 cents, 4 bunches will cost 4 times 2 cents, which are 8 cents. Therefore, if 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, 4 bunches of matches will cost 8 cents.

The very tendency of formulated language is to routine. The foundations of the childish memory and the childish principle of association are upset, and the natural observation of childhood entirely devitalized. But an illustration, furnished by the same master-hand that gave us the Yorkshire boarding-school, will answer my purpose better.

No teacher before me, who has read Dickens' "Hard Times," will fail to recall the following scene:—

Mr. Gradgrind, the town magnate and school patron, is present in the model school of his own creation, where Mr. McChoakumchild surcharges the youthful Coke-towners with grim facts. After a preliminary address to the teachers in this vein—

"Now what I want is facts. Teach these boys and girls nothing but facts. Facts alone are wanted in life. Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the mind of reasoning animals upon facts; nothing else will ever be of any service to them. This is the principle upon which I bring up my own children, and this is the principle on which I bring up these children. Stick to facts, Sir!"

Having thus relieved himself, that his self-love may be gratified by witnessing the triumphs of his own educational scheming, he calls out, by an appropriate management and catechising, its distinctive features.

Sissy Jupe, Girl No. 20, the daughter of a strolling circus actor, whose life, no small share of it, has been passed under the canvas; whose knowledge of horse, generic and specific, extends back as far as memory reaches; familiar with the form and food, the powers and habits and everything relating to the horse; knowing it through several senses; Sissy Jupe has been asked to define horse. Astonished at hearing her father stigmatized as a veterinary surgeon, a farrier and horse-breaker; bewildered by the striking want of resemblance between the horse of her own conceptions and the prescribed formula that represents the animal in the books of the Home and Colonial Society, she dares not trust herself with the confusing description, and shrinks from it in silence and alarm.

"Girl No. 20 unable to define a horse," said Mr. Gradgrind. Girl No. 20 is declared possessed of no facts in reference to one of the commonest of animals, and appeal is made to one red-eyed Bitzer, who knows horse practically only as he has seen a picture of a horse, or as he has, perhaps, sometimes safely weathered the perils of a crowded street crossing.

"Bitzer," (said Thomas Gradgrind,) "your definition of a horse!"

"Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth, namely: twenty-four grinders, four eye teeth, and twelve incisive. Sheds coat in the Spring; in marshy countries sheds hoofs too. Hoofs hard, but requiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks in mouth." Thus (and much more) Bitzer.

"Now Girl No. 20," said Mr. Gradgrind, "you know what a horse is."

The features of a school system thus graphically described are the features of the Home and Colonial Society's system, and I regret to say that what is known in this country as the Oswego System is its lineal descendant.

That this is no misrepresentation (see lessons on objects, page 97.)

LESSON TWENTY-THIRD.

A Lady Bird.

Ideas to be developed—hemispherical, fragile, jointed.

<i>Parts.</i>	<i>Qualities.</i>
The head.....	It is animal.
" eyes	Natural.
" feelers or palpi.....	Hemispherical.
" horns or antennae.....	The wing cases are red.
" wings.....	Spotted.
" wing cases or elytra.....	Bright.
" thorax.....	Hard.
" legs.....	The wing cases are brittle.
" body.....	Opaque.
" back.....	Stiff.
" spots.....	The outside is convex.
" surface.....	The inside is concave.
" claws.....	One margin straight. The other curved.
	The wings are membranaceous, " pliable, " thin, " transparent, " fragile.
	The body is oval, " black.
	The legs are jointed, " short, " black.

The lesson above cited is one of a large number sketched for the use of teachers; all models for still others of a similar character to be framed as they shall be needed, and designed to cover the whole period of school instruction. Is such endless repetition of obvious qualities a natural and nourishing food for the childish mind? Will it never tire of such thin gruel of utilitarianism? And looking at the real object of a public school system as our own, supported from the public treasury, designed to obviate the accidents of birth or fortune, by placing the keys of knowledge in every youthful hand, is such chaff a substitute for a thorough grounding in the elementary branches? is it a good preparation, even, for the same? But conceding that these exercises accomplish the end for which they were designed, is it not a cultivation of the perceptive faculties too exclusive, and at the expense of the other powers of the pupil?

It is claimed, however, that thus are laid the foundations for a future structure of science; that we ascend from form to geometry, from place to geography, &c., &c. Than this nothing can be more mistaken. Perceptions of form and color are quite distinct from geometry and chromatography. Language is one thing, and the science of grammar quite another.

That scientific and technical language is prematurely introduced in the methods adopted at Oswego, no one can question who visits the Oswego schools. One hears little children, not two weeks under instruction, taught that certain parts of a sheep (or the picture of a sheep) are "principal," others "secondary," and some "characteristic." One hears from infant mouths such terms as "graminivorous and chalybeate, iridescent and amorphous, serrated and foliaceous, imbricated and indigenous." Children there are taught not only to discriminate, with the eye, the various shades and hues of color, but loaded down with such terms as hyaline, watchet, lazuline, indigene, carneline, rosine, coraline, venetia, morone, salmonine, peachine, and magenta.

The 9th and last principle laid down is the following:—"First synthesis, then analysis—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature." I leave for others to discuss the first clause of the rule. I may venture this inquiry, however. If it be true "that all intelligent action whatever depends upon the discerning of distinctions among surrounding things," does not this principle require that analysis should be the first step in the work of education? And further, as one examines the specimen lessons in the Oswego textbooks, even, does it not appear that so far as the exercise of the observing faculties is properly conducted, it is pure analysis, while the mere framing of the definition or the formulated summary can only be called synthetical.

The last clause, ("not the order of the subject, but the order of nature,") whatever its supposed relation to the former, contains an important truth which I would thus interpret. All subjects should be presented to a child in view of the order in which his faculties are developed; in connection with his already existing ideas, as they may be indicated by the form in which his curiosity manifests itself, or otherwise, that they may be retained by some principle of association; and also in relation to their practical value and uses, as acquirements and discipline, for the time being. And contrariwise, they should not be presented in relation to any assumed order of knowledge or any scientific arrangement or classification. (I am speaking now especially of those subjects which, in the primary school-room and in the case of young children, should precede and furnish the foundation of what are ordinarily regarded as the elementary studies.) Scientific names, definitions and classification are designed for a special and practical purpose; and that purpose, manifestly, not related to the instruction of infants or the early history of our race. A young child (and for that matter the savage)

has no practical use for science and therefore does not need its technicalities. What he does need are words, figurative expressions, or a classification connected in a living way to his senses, his observation, his experience, the range of his reasoning powers, and by the use of which he can remember, reproduce, or communicate to another his sensations and ideas.

The scientific mode should be reserved for a later period of instruction, when science, as such, has, by the development of the pupil, acquired a practical value.

For modern science, be it remembered, (and herein it differs from the older forms,) is, from its very nature, far removed from the range of a child's observation, and has no obvious relations to the little, every-day world in which he lives and moves. It is based upon structure and organs, and unobvious, and to the child, unimportant properties, and includes, what Spencer has called, "completeness of prevision." And though there are certain external features which ordinarily indicate, to the eye of the expert, the peculiarities of internal structure, yet the connection can not be appreciated at an immature age.

So true is this, that I find a modern writer of great logical acuteness thus expressing himself:—

Science, as I shall afterwards have occasion to illustrate, is painful from the necessity of dis-associating appearances that go naturally and easily together, of renouncing the full and total aspect of an object by which it engaged agreeably the various senses, and of settling upon some feature that has no interest to the common eye.*

I have ventured to elaborate what seemed to me to be the truth contained in the clause under discussion. But that this is not the interpretation of it adopted by the advocates of the Oswego System may be seen by referring either to a single model lesson, or to the general method of treating a particular subject. Take, by way of illustration, almost the first lesson in the manual. It is a development exercise to cultivate the powers of observation. The children are first told that paper is artificial, that it is made of linen rags, that linen is made from the stem of a plant called flax. They then observe its obvious qualities; they are next supplied with the terms pliable, translucent, inflammable, &c.

But one must not stop upon individual lessons, but take subjects.

What I am now about to say is related also to principle No. 4—"Reduce every subject to its elements."

Take the method of teaching reading. If one takes up a printed page it may be resolved into lines, these lines into words, the words

* Bain. "The Senses and Intellect."

into letters, (to say nothing of points,) the letters into combination of forms, that may be further classified as straight lines and curved, perpendicular and horizontal. As related to the printer's art, this may be called reducing the subject to its elements, or following the order of the subject.

Again, the words on the page (which is speech represented to the eye) represent a variety of combinations of sounds, which may be resolved into their elementary sounds; these into classes as atonic, sub-tonic, &c.; and still further according to the position of the vocal organs in producing these elementary sounds. This may be called reducing the subject to its elements, or following its order.

If our language were strictly phonetic, these two classes of elements could be, in some degree, approximated, and thus the art of reading, as an art, could be acquired without any great waste of effort on the part of the learner, particularly an adult learner. But this is not true. The number of elementary characters does not correspond to the number of elementary sounds. The forms of the characters have no actual or symbolic relation to the sounds.

Custom has also sanctioned a variety of form in the same letters. These have each been provided with a name conventional and arbitrary, sometimes resembling its power in composition, and sometimes not.

Furthermore, to increase the perplexities, the same sounds are represented by different letters and combinations; and these last do not uniformly represent the same sound. So that our language is irregularity run wild. The rule is the exception and the exception is the rule.

Now the method of the Home and Colonial Society (and the Oswego plan is but little better) brings the child, face to face, with this mountain of difficulties, and on the plea of reducing every subject to its elements, picks up each individual difficulty, one at a time, and throws it a stumbling-stone at the feet of the pupil. With fatiguing exercise, perhaps, the whole ground may be at last stumbled over. Listen to the role and judge.

The pupils are first taught to distinguish by the eye all the Roman capitals; next, to distinguish clumsy imitations of these, as many as can be formed by combinations of straight lines; and then similar imitations of the remainder formed by straight lines and curved. A similar plan is now adopted in teaching the forms of the smaller letters. The pupils are practiced in repeating the forty, more or less, elementary sounds of the language. They are lead to notice the position of the organs of speech in making these sounds.

At this stage (First Step—pupils between four and five years of age) they are encumbered with the application of the terms, "tonic, atonic and sub-tonic," &c., to the sounds in question.

They are taught to form uncouth imitations of the spurious capitals, before mentioned, with pieces of lath; then to print them on the slate. Then comes the learning of twenty-six arbitrary names of letters and connecting these with the same number of conventional forms. The same course is pursued with the small letters. The pupils are next exercised in the sounds of the vowels and diphthongs; not, however, their power in composition. They are taught to spell classes of words of one syllable. Only at this point do any proper exercises in reading (or in fact in learning to read) begin; and even then these are in accordance with a somewhat clumsy phonic method.

It is claimed for this plan, the stupidity of which no description can fully portray, that it "puts the child in possession of a key by which he is able to help himself—a very important principle in education." A hundred such keys will leave a child groping and knocking at the door of our written language, in which the sound *too* is spelt three different ways and *ough* stands for half its vowel sounds.

All this is done, as it is supposed, to carry out a principle ascribed to Pestalozzi; that the work of the educator should be analytical and that of the learner synthetical.

This is what they propose to do theoretically. Meanwhile, however, the pupil, in spite of this attempt to hamper his feet with the intricacies and perplexities of our language, has been covertly making his way by a more direct, natural, and easy route to the same end. In this respect the child has shown himself wiser than the master. By the aid of a memory which can only be characterized as "adhesive" in the extreme, he has been quietly learning words as words, on the blackboard, on the lesson cards, and in the text-book of the school-room. He has been classifying words in accordance with his own principle of association, to assist his memory when its mere adhesiveness has failed; and now noting their resemblances and differences, he has analyzed them for himself into their elements and thus learned the powers of letters in composition. In short, he has grasped the idea of the sole object of learning to read, and directed his steps by the shortest route to that end.

Years ago I read in Emerson's "Schoolmaster" that the best way of learning to read was to let children learn words first and afterwards the letters of which they are made; and why? because "this

is nature's method." I can not stop to outline this word-method by showing how completely it follows the order of nature.

I will call your attention now, briefly, to the Oswego method of teaching drawing. It commences from combinations with two straight lines, then with three, and so on up to seven or eight. Then combinations with four right and two acute angles, then with obtuse angles. Combinations with four rectangular triangles. Combinations with the various quadrangular figures. Then combinations with the various curves. This is all elementary to geometrical drawing. This doubtless has its uses. This is better than no instruction in drawing, perhaps.

But that this is not the way to teach drawing as an art, or for the practical and pleasurable uses which render its acquisition desirable, I think that the great mass of experts will agree. Spencer speaks of an elementary drawing-book, on a similar plan, as most vicious in principle, as only "a grammar of form with exercises." Ruskin is equally emphatic in recommending an entirely different course.

The same regard to the order of the subject and disregard of the order of nature is seen in the selection and arrangement of topics for the object lessons; in the scientific tone that pervades the whole series, and in the early introduction of science (distinctly) into their educational course; as if this were unavoidable in attempting to impart any useful knowledge to the child.

The late Archbishop Whately disposed of this opinion epigrammatically by asking, "Can not a child be taught that a nettle will sting without being taught the science of botany?"

That these are not unwarranted criticisms on the Oswego methods, let me appeal to the manuals in which they are embodied. The extracts illustrative of methods may be appropriately introduced by a few sentences selected either from preface or introduction, somewhat in the form of precepts.

"The design of this work is to present a definite course of elementary instruction adapted to philosophic views of the laws of childhood."

"It would seem too obvious to require an argument that every teacher"—(and for that matter, it might have been added, every superintendent of public schools and each school-book compiler) "should clearly comprehend the character of the infant mind and its mode of operation."

That a proper lesson "should equally avoid detailed information, on the one hand, and on the other, mere general notices, such as constitute a table of contents or heading of a chapter."

"That it is important, as far as possible, to give the children a good deal of latitude; and let the discoveries be their own, except as they may be guided in part by the teacher."

"Those who fall into a mechanical way of giving such instruction and do not perceive the principle involved, completely defeat its intention and *they had far better keep to old plans and old books.*" The italics are mine.

Turn now to "Lessons on objects," (page 132 and the following.)

It is the "fourth step," or designed for children of seven or eight years old. The subject is the metals. Seven pages are devoted to the general subject. The mode of their occurrence is given; their distinguishing "characters;" their properties as reflectors of light and heat, as conductors of heat and electricity. The specific gravity of ten are given in numbers to the third decimal. The weight of a cubic foot of the common metals is also given. They are told the number of tons that rods an inch square, of the common metals, will severally sustain without breaking. Detailed information upon the other general properties are likewise furnished by the teacher, to an extent that will suggest the thought that not only is "a good deal of latitude given the children," but some degree of longitude. Then follow eight model lessons on as many metals, in which the properties, qualities, uses, geographical and geological relations are given with almost encyclopedic particularity; though not always with the accuracy desirable in a text-book.

We will now open the other manual, "Elementary Instruction." As in the former case, take the "fourth step," the children of the same age as before. Under the head of "objects," (page 184,) "Sketches on the Bible." In another place it is stated "that the general aim of the teacher in a Bible lesson is to produce a religious impression." Let us see how this is done.

10. SKETCHES ON THE BIBLE.

Having drawn from the class, by a few direct and simple questions, that the Bible was not always a printed book—was not first written in English—was not bestowed on mankind at once, complete from Genesis to Revelation, but in detached parts; and having told them to consider the successive portions in which it was given, the language in which it was first written, and the form in which it then appeared, the children ought to be in possession of most of the facts referred to; therefore, during the greater part of the lessons, the business of the teacher would be to lead them to collect and arrange what they already know.

I. *Scripture—in what portions given, and at what period.*

1st. Possessors of Scripture—the Hebrew nation. Not when we first recognize it in Egypt, but previous to the settlement in Canaan. Date of this event. At that time the Israelites had the writings of Moses, probably including one or two of the Psalms, and the book of Job. Thence to the first captivity they received successively the books of Joshua, Judges, Samuel, Kings, Chronicles, the writings of David, those of his son, a portion of the greater and most of the lesser prophets. After the return, the narratives of Ezra, Nehemiah and Esther, with the three last prophetic books. Date of the return.

2d. Books of the New Testament period. Also considered with respect to writers, titles, and oracles. Date of conclusion of Scripture. Text learned: Hebrews i, 1—"God, who at sundry times and in divers manners spake in times past unto the fathers of the prophets, hath in these last days spoken unto us by His Son."

II. *Language—that in which Scripture was first written—translations.*

1st. Every revelation prior to the date of the first captivity made in Hebrew. This accounted for. Books of Daniel and Ezra written partly in Hebrew and partly in Chaldee. Lead the class to infer the probable reason of this, from consideration as to the subject of the portions written in Chaldee; principally such

as include original letters, decrees, &c., of the Babylonish and Persian governments. Scriptures posterior to the date of the captivity written in Chaldee, and all the earlier books translated into the same tongue. No sooner did the ancient Hebrew become a dead language, than the Scriptures were put into the vernacular tongue by men, such as Ezra, acting under the immediate inspiration of God. Conclusion drawn from this, and text learned, showing the importance of understanding the Word of God: 1 Cor. xiv, 19—"I had rather speak five words with my understanding, than by my voice I might teach others also, than ten thousand words in an unknown tongue."

2d. The coming of the time in which the Gentiles were to be led to a knowledge of the truth, marked by the dispersion of the Scriptures among them. Providence of God shown in this. Its design and effect. Give general account of various translations, and particular one on the Septuagint. Refer to, and prove the importance of, the last translation. Refer to prevalence of the Greek tongue in every part of the civilized world, as connected providentially with the publication of the Gospel in that language.

To connect this period with what follows, touch very briefly on the general professions of Christianity. Division of the Roman Empire and subsequent spread of the Greek and Roman Catholic churches. Progress of the latter. Extent of her power. Change with respect to the language of the Bible. Scripture written in Latin throughout all the countries of the Western Empire.

III. Forms under which the *Scriptures have been presented at different periods.*

1st. Derivation of the terms Bible and Scripture. Sacred words of the Jews' writings. Not books. Kind of materials chiefly used, either parchment or vellum. Scroll—when not in use, rolled up on a slender cylinder like a school map; hence, origin of the term *volume*. Refer to the Scribes. Their office. Importance and accuracy of their labors.

2d. Describe sacred records of Christians in the Middle Ages. Illuminated MSS. What they were. Why so called? Sometimes rolls, often books. Beauty and value of these copies. The copyists—what class of men they were. Their mode of life, position, and character, compared with that of the Jewish Scribes.

3d. Sacred records in the modern form. Class observe their own Bibles, and state how they differ externally from those before described. Why composed of many sheets bound together, not of one rolled up? Why made of paper rather than parchment? Why no longer MSS? Give brief account of the invention of printing and its immediate consequence. The great multiplication of copies. Effect of the distribution of these all over the world. Specimens of Scriptural translations in one hundred and forty-eight languages were to be seen at the Great Exhibition. Compare God's present method of making known Himself and His will, to that He adopted in the Apostolic age. Then, supernatural gift of tongues, enabling the Apostles so to preach that all could understand. Why necessary then? Now, the same object effected without a miracle, by the translation of the Bible into different languages, so that the nations may still say, "We do bear them speak in our tongues the wonderful works of God."—Acts ii, 11.

IV. *Unchangeableness of the inspired word—its influence.*

Bible to be regarded as a perfect whole. The New Testament not an abrogation, but a development of the principles contained in the Old. Text: Matthew v, 17, 18. This might be proved by reference to the nature of God, but is evidently seen by the invariable influence of the Scriptures on the condition of man in all ages and countries. Compare the mental and moral condition of the Jews prior to their first captivity, with that of the nations surrounding them. Refer to countries in which the Bible is unknown at this day; without exception, utterly barbarous and degraded. Refer to countries in which its doctrines are rejected, and yet, because the people have learned something of the historical events recorded in it, because its precepts (though their origin is not recognized) are interwoven with social laws, they take a far higher rank. Instance, Mohammedans. Refer to countries in which the Scriptures are held to be true, and the people do not read them, because the ecclesiastical power has put a seal on the book. These are better off than those before named, for they hear of the name, and know somewhat of the character of Jesus, and through the thick mists of tradition the light of the Word will sometimes shine.

Conclusion drawn—that the Bible is a great engine of civilization, as well as the source of spiritual knowledge. Effect of its free circulation throughout the land. Refer to the renovation now commenced in heathen lands, from the spread of Scriptures and spiritual teaching. Duty incumbent on us to place the Bible in the households of our own and other countries. We may anticipate the promised blessing, that they who water others shall themselves be watered.

Now imagine, if you please, a teacher of a public school standing in the presence of a class of pupils between the ages of seven and twelve, composed of such material as will be found in our cities and large towns, "talking like this book," and tell me, will such themes, thus presented, conduce to any feelings worthy of the name of religious impressions? Is such instruction in accordance with "philosophic views of the laws of childhood?" Do you smile at the absurdity of the extracts I have given!—there is hardly a page in either of the two volumes of Oswego gospel but contains matter equally ridiculous. The fact is, this peculiar adaptation of Pestalozianism could hardly be otherwise, for though fresh from an American press, it yet had its origin in what may be called the dark ages of educational history in England; that is, some thirty years ago.

[There is a difficulty attending the proper treatment of this subject. I mentioned at the outset the considerations which made it a suitable theme for discussion in even a national assemblage of teachers. But when one exposes the fallacy of any of the principles, the absurdity of any of the methods, up start the advocates of the system and repudiate the obnoxious features, or claim that these are but experiments, looking towards something to be perfected in the alembic of the future. And when the vicious tendencies of the system, as a whole, are pointed out, then these same parties fall back upon the quality of their motives.

But the very exclusiveness of their theory forbids any hope of improvement with the best intentions that underlie it.

They are on record at the very outset in this wise. The system as presented to the American public is claimed to embody "the light and experience of the best schools of Europe, where these methods have been longest and most thoroughly tested." That it is "a *definite course of elementary instruction* adapted to philosophic views of the laws of childhood," &c., &c.

Furthermore, a legislative grant has been obtained, as has been already mentioned, not for experimental purposes, looking towards improvement in elementary instruction, but to train teachers in this particular system.

But the time allotted will not permit me to pass in review other features of the so-called Oswego System, equally objectionable.

The task I have already performed would have been a disagreeable one, even if, with more time and preparation, I could have flattered myself that it had been well done. It is still more so, conscious as I am of its imperfection. But it is important that the work of primary instruction should be well conducted. And it is claimed for the Oswego System, by its advocates, that in no other way can this be accomplished than by the methods prescribed in the books from which I have quoted. The State of New York has given a legislative sanction to the justness of this claim, by appropriating money for the support of a training school for teachers, where these principles and methods are adopted and applied. The legislatures of other States will doubtless be invited to follow this example.

I regard the whole scheme as unwise and defective. A sense of duty has therefore constrained me to call the attention of the teachers of the country to the subject, that others more nearly related to our common school system, and otherwise more competent than myself, may hereafter more thoroughly expose its vicious tendencies.]

I would not, even now, be understood as discouraging, in the slightest degree, the addition to our present modes of primary school instruction of any new or desirable features, or the adoption of any new methods to meet new educational wants, from whatever source obtained.

I will venture to illustrate my idea. It was my good fortune not many months ago to visit, under favorable circumstances, the schools of a western city.* I saw there the evidences of a most intelligent supervision, by one familiar with the whole subject of American education, and who had carefully studied the principles and methods of instruction in other lands. I saw a corps of teachers, from highest to lowest, intelligent, active, animated by a full sense of the importance of their work and imbued with the same spirit that controlled the supervision. I saw the usual elementary course in our common schools, preceded by, associated with, and supplemented by well selected oral lessons that made the whole a living form of education. Viewing the pupils as individuals, I saw that a natural and suitable aliment was so wisely spread before each mind as to insure the proper grasp and growth, and as a consequence, mental activity and strength. Looking at them as classes, I beheld each grade of pupils, in the school-rooms, responsive to every word and look and thought of the teacher.

Though I might not approve of all the details of methods I witnessed even there, yet as I saw a wise eclecticism, making the whole

* Chicago.





Engd by Geo. E. Perine N.Y.

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